

**Education For All (EFA): Reaching Nomadic Communities in Wajir,
Kenya - Challenges and Opportunities**

By

Abdi Ibrahim Abdi

**A thesis submitted in the partial fulfilment for the requirements
of the degree of M Res in Education**

Thesis Supervisor

Prof. Stephen Gorard

**School of Education
University of Birmingham
United Kingdom
16th June, 2010**

UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM

University of Birmingham Research Archive

e-theses repository

This unpublished thesis/dissertation is copyright of the author and/or third parties. The intellectual property rights of the author or third parties in respect of this work are as defined by The Copyright Designs and Patents Act 1988 or as modified by any successor legislation.

Any use made of information contained in this thesis/dissertation must be in accordance with that legislation and must be properly acknowledged. Further distribution or reproduction in any format is prohibited without the permission of the copyright holder.

Abstract

This new study examined and discussed the challenges inhibiting nomads from accessing formal education in the light of Kenya's domestication of Education for All (EFA) which the government committed itself at various world conferences. The research investigated the disproportionate disparity in school enrolment among the different regions in Kenya despite heavy investment and efforts in education. It looked at the programmes geared towards achieving EFA such as Free Primary Education, boarding schools, school feeding programme and bursaries. These and other features of EFA are discussed as they are deemed to provide a feasible route for educating nomads.

The research used a mixed methods approach to collect data using semi-structured interviews designed for nomadic parents, focus group discussions with education officials and teachers, and a questionnaire for nomadic students in secondary schools. The research instruments were designed to find out the challenges, perceptions, preferences and policies concerning nomadic education from 78 purposively selected individuals comprising eight interviews, 50 questionnaires and 20 focus group discussion participants.

The findings from the field illustrate the continuing under-participation of nomads in education. Informants cite the location of schools, poor facilities, poor transport, attitude of parents and poverty among other issues as the inhibiting factors affecting participation of nomads in formal education. If fuller participation is required, the main issues arising are the need to revamp existing facilities, entrench mobile schools in the Koran schools and

strengthen legislation for compulsory education while concurrently improving the infrastructure for nomadic people. In this way, education can be provided that respects the nomadic lifestyle.

The research concludes by proposing a multifaceted approach to the education of nomads. However, mobile schools with a non-formal curriculum package may be an especially attractive option due to expected suitability in nomadic setting and their relatively low cost, given expected financial constraints. It is also recommended that further research is routinely conducted to explore nomadic friendly learning programmes before the implementation of any of these recommendations.

Acknowledgements

Foremost, I must acknowledge that without the grace of God I would not have been able to accomplish this work.

Secondly, I am profoundly grateful to Ford Foundation International which gave me full scholarship to pursue this course without which it will have been a pipe dream and the Kenyan government for giving me a paid leave of absence.

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Prof. S. Gorard for his insightful comments, guidance, suggestions and above all the one to one tutoring that I always received which enabled me to complete my work.

I wish to thank all my family members for their encouragement, understanding and prayers which greatly gave me the strength and vigour to complete this work. I pay special tribute to my wife and children who really missed me and I thank them for their patience.

My sincere thanks go to all the research participants who gave me the opportunity to conduct the research and the entire staff of the School of Education, University of Birmingham for their continued support of providing favourable learning environment.

Dedication

This Thesis is dedicated to the nomadic communities
of Wajir District, Kenya.

CONTENTS

Abstract	I
Acknowledgements.....	III
Dedication.....	IV
List of Tables and Figures.....	IX
Acronyms.....	X
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.0 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY.....	1
1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	3
1.2 AIMS OF THE STUDY	5
1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS	7
1.4 OUTLINE OF THESIS.....	8
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	9
2.0 INTRODUCTION.....	9
2.1 NOMADS OF KENYA.....	10
2.2 CHALLENGES TO EDUCATION FOR NOMADS.....	12
2.2.1 <i>Perceived challenges</i>	12
2.2.2 <i>Structural challenges</i>	13
2.3 EDUCATION STRUCTURE IN KENYA	15
2.4 EDUCATION FOR ALL.....	16
2.4.1 <i>The overarching principles of EFA</i>	16
2.4.2 <i>Features of EFA</i>	17
2.5 EDUCATIONAL APPROACHES AND POLICIES IN KENYA	20
2.5.1 <i>Free primary education(FPE)</i>	20

2.5.2 Boarding schools	23
2.5.3 School feeding programme (SFP)	24
2.5.4 Bursaries to Secondary Students	25
2.6 MOBILE SCHOOLS	26
2.7 ADULT EDUCATION.....	29
2.8 OTHER OPPORTUNITIES	30
2.9 CONCLUSION	31
2.10 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY	31
2.10.1 Introduction	31
2.10.2 Human Capital Approach	31
2.10.3 Rights Based Approach (RBA)	33
2.11 THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY	35
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	36
3.0 INTRODUCTION.....	36
3.1 THE RESEARCH DESIGN	36
3.1.1 Cross-sectional design	36
3.2 METHODOLOGY.....	37
3.3 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING	40
3.4 METHODS.....	42
3.4.1 Design of instruments	42
3.4.2 Semi structured interviews	43
3.4.3 Questionnaire	44
3.4.4 Focus group discussion.....	45
3.5 VALIDITY OF THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS	46

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS	47
3.6.1 Focus group discussion.....	48
3.6.2 Semi-structured Interviews.....	49
3.6.3 Questionnaire	49
3.7 RESEARCH ETHICS	50
3.8 FIELDWORK REFLECTIONS	51
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS	53
4.0 INTRODUCTION.....	53
4.1 ECONOMIC ISSUES	53
4.2 EDUCATIONAL POLICIES.....	57
4.3 PERCEPTIONS.....	61
4.4 MOBILITY OF NOMADS AND TRANSPORT	64
4.5 LACK OF SCHOOLS AND BOARDING FACILITIES	67
4.6 CHILD LABOUR	71
4.7 CONCLUSION	73
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS	75
5.0 INTRODUCTION.....	75
5.1 SUMMARY	75
5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS.....	77
5.2 MINISTRY OF EDUCATION LEVEL	77
5.2.1 Policies.....	77
5.2.1.1 Equipped Boarding Schools	78
5.2.1.2 Teacher training	79
5.2.1.3 Auxiliary learning activities	80

5.3 NOMADIC SETTING.....	80
5.3.1 <i>Mobile schools</i>	80
5.3.1.1 Integration into the Koran schools	81
5.3.1.2 Curriculum.....	82
5.3.1.3 Adult education.....	83
5.4 OUTSIDE THE FORMAL SCHOOLS	84
5.4.1 <i>Voucher system</i>	84
5.4.2 <i>Radio and distance education</i>	84
5.5 NON-EDUCATIONAL RECOMMENDATIONS	85
5.5.1 <i>Nomadic infrastructure</i>	85
5.5.2 <i>Labour offsets</i>	86
5.5.3 <i>Educational camps</i>	86
5.6 WAY FORWARD FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	87
5.7 CONCLUSIONS	88
REFERENCES.....	89
APPENDIX – INSTRUMENTS USED IN THE RESEARCH.....	102

List of tables and figures

Table 2.0 Primary schools Gross Enrolment Rate (GER), by province 2003-2007 in %...	21
Table 2.1 Primary schools GER for North Eastern Province, 2003-2007 in %	22
Table 2.2 Assessments of nomadic education activities.....	27
Table 2.3 Mobile School enrolments by 2003.....	29
Box1 RBA Guidelines.....	33
Table 4.0 Challenges nomadic students face.....	54
Table 4.1 Background information from interviews.....	56
Table 4.2 Challenges nomadic children face.....	62
Table 4.3 How nomadic children can be educated.....	67
Table 4.4 Ways students overcome the Challenges.....	69
Table 4.5 Students' engagements during vacations.....	72

Acronyms

ASALs	Arid and semi arid lands
EFA	Education for All
EMIS	Education management information systems
EO	Education Officer
ERSWP	Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation Paper
FGD	Focus group discussion
FTI	Fast track initiative
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
IPAR	Institute of Policy Analysis and Research
KESSP	Kenya Education Sector Support Programme
KFSSG	Kenya Food Security Steering Group
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MOEST	Ministry of Education Science and Technology
NGOs	Non-governmental organizations
NPHC	Nomadic Primary Health CARE
ODE	Open and distance education
UNESCO	United Nation Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UN	United Nations
SFP	School Feeding Programme
SID	Society for International Development

Chapter one: Introduction

1.0 Background to the study

The purpose of this section is to outline the concepts on which the study is based in terms of the current situation of nomads, formal education and what others have done. This study is about the education for nomads in the light of the guiding principles of Education for All (EFA), an agreement of the United Nations' (UN), which provides a different approach for education provision, access and learning. The study emanates from my experience as a teacher, trainer, and community worker in Wajir that gave me the opportunity to realize the absence of many nomadic children from schooling.

EFA, through its goals in article 7 of The Dakar Framework for Action, demonstrates the need to expand literacy beyond the borders of formal classrooms by embracing diverse delivery systems such as life skills learning, distance education, adult education and traditional education (UNESCO, 2000). These diverse delivery systems are deemed to provide compatible ways of learning for people like nomads who cannot pursue education through the formal classroom system.

Increasing educational access for nomads in Kenya is not a new issue but the implementation scheme has had limited success so far. The first post-independence commission on education in Kenya, widely known as the Ominde Commission recommended, among many other issues, the reversing of educational situation in nomadic districts (Republic of Kenya, 1964) which by then had a gross enrolment ratio (GER) of less

than five percent while other parts of the country had a 100 percent participation (Sifuna, 1991). The inherited imbalances of formal education from the colonial government implicitly perpetuated by the independent state stimulated inequalities in all its forms as is captured by Oxfam (2006:2) below;

‘years of economic and political marginalization have resulted in the arid and semi-arid lands (ASALs) being the most under developed areas in Kenya...basic services are not provided and inhabitants have poor health and low education.’

The consequences of educational disparities are seen to elevate inequalities by reducing the capacity of the disadvantaged groups like nomads to take advantage of ways of improving their welfare attributed to education such as competing favourably for employment opportunities (Wainaina, 2005). Inequality is viewed as the dissimilarity or ‘pattern of variation people have in the degree of something’ (Society for International Development [SID], 2004:2) such as level of education or nutrition.

According to some commentators the rising demand for education and regional disparities in its access within communities coupled with commitments to world declarations on education and human rights inspired various approaches to address inequality in educational access in Kenya (Sifuna, 2007). However, the inequalities in education access and participation do not seem to be narrowing irrespective of educational developments such as free primary education and school feeding programmes (MOEST, 2005a).

A number of possible explanations have been postulated for the above trends: firstly government policies tend to be unstable due to the high turnover of political leadership (Manda et al., 2002) creating lack of continuity, secondly, due to the perceived decline of individual and social returns from education and thirdly the incompatibility of formal education with nomadic lifestyle (Krätli with Dyer, 2006; Krätli, 2001). A fourth possible assumption is that 'pastoralists were viewed as consumers of national resources with no commensurate contribution to the national cake' (IPAR, 2002:1), and consequently deliberate under-investment has become the norm for nomads.

1.1 Statement of the problem

The participation by nomads in formal education the world over and more specifically in nomadic areas of Kenya is seen as a challenging problem to the providers of education (Krätli with Dyer, 2006; Kakonge et al., 2001; Krätli, 2001; MOEST, 2001). The determination by the Kenyan government to increase access to education inspired the development of policies in the form of approaches and programmes such as free primary education, boarding schools, school-feeding programmes, bursary funds for bright but poor students and recently tuition free secondary education. However, the performances of these programmes among the nomadic peoples have been very discouraging.

The educational situation in Kenya for nomadic communities is poor as has been documented by researchers and the Kenyan government (Achoka et al., 2007; MOEST, 2001; MOEST, 2004; Oxfam, 2005; Sifuna, 2005). The enrolments in formal primary schools which is one of the ways of measuring success and failure of education is very low

in the whole of North Eastern Province comprising Wajir, Mandera, Ijara and Garissa districts in comparison to all other parts of the country.

Literacy among nomadic parents in Kenya is low and is seen to be another possible dimension contributing to the low participation by the region in education. According to the Kenya literacy survey conducted countrywide, North Eastern Province including Wajir district has the lowest literacy level of only 8.1% whereas Nairobi has 87.1% literacy achievement and the overall national literacy level is 61.5% (Republic of Kenya, 2007; Elimu Yetu Coalition, 2007). This inequality is reflected in all aspects of life. For example, the ratio of doctors to the population in Wajir is 1:356,340 contrasting with Nyandarua with a ratio of 1:10,000, consequently the mortality rate at birth and under fives is high (SID, 2004). Closely linked to the low literacy level is high unemployment in the nomadic regions of Kenya (SID, 2004) and lack of transition to higher education which are a backdrop to the deliberate avoidance by some parents of education for their children (Krätli, 2001).

The educational slogans of FPE such as 'Every child in school' (MOEST, 2003), free and compulsory basic education for all children (UNESCO, 2000; MOEST, 2005a) and the absence of strategies for successful implementation of these policies point to the inadequacies of mere policies alone. The inability of these programmes and policies to attract and maintain enrolments for nomadic communities leads to asking the following questions;

- How will compulsory education and every child in school be encouraged?
- Who will implement these policies?

- Does the implementation include and involve all? If not, who is left out and why?
- Does the removal of some of the obstacles such as user fees automatically lead to higher enrolment?
- What challenges hinder participation of nomads in education?

These questions lead to the broad aims of this new research and the specific research questions as discussed below.

1.2 Aims of the study

As mentioned earlier, the motivation for researching the implementation of the EFA programme in Kenya and more specifically among nomads of Wajir emerges from my personal experiences. I have been teaching in parts of Kenya where the actualization of EFA is seen and described by many stakeholders and researchers both from within and outside as very poor (Achoka et al., 2007; Oxfam, 2005; Sifuna, 2005; MOEST, 2005a). The absence of nomadic children from classrooms triggered in me many questions. Where are these children? What is keeping them away? Can they be brought to classrooms? Are there alternatives for them?

I had to change something in a primary school I happened to be heading, situated in a village settled by nomads whose animals were cleared by drought or else had very few left, not able to support them in the interior grasslands. The government provides food to schools situated in arid and semi-arid regions (ASALs) of Kenya through the School Feeding Programme (SFP) by giving one midday meal to children. I had to extend feeding programme to include

an extra early morning meal to elicit a boost in enrolment. To my dismay, the change in enrolment was negligible.

This research investigated the education situation for nomadic pastoralists in terms of access, participation and enrolments from the perspectives of the EFA. Reports and statistics from the MOEST demonstrate the under participation of nomads in formal education (MOEST, 2001; MOEST, 2004; Republic of Kenya, 2007).

One purpose was to find out the initiatives put in place to enhance EFA among vulnerable groups such as nomads and the reception accorded by the target groups. The success and limitations of these programmes were examined and discussed, to build on the strengths and improve on the shortcomings while at the same time identifying new ways to reach the unreached. These initiatives are boarding schools, FPE, SFP and bursaries among others.

The research further aims at creating new understanding about nomads and their way of life, as drought and overgrazing on their pastureland increases, weakening their socio-economic capabilities. Similarly, the changing policies to provide nomads with education from global to country level and the low educational access, participation and literacy level of nomads need to be reconciled. Thus, the research findings on nomadic education and their lifestyle helps to inform all stakeholders involved in the holistic development of nomads. This is therefore expected to provoke further research and possible policy redirection.

The research aims to find out: why nomadic children are absent from schools; how can the situation be improved; how previous and current initiatives are either hampering or

facilitating the education of nomads and identify possible routes for the realization of EFA among nomadic communities.

Previous researchers have used secondary sources alone (Mugwe, 2006; Krätli, 2001), or gathered data from the sedentary communities as a representation of the nomads or combined both (Sifuna, 2005; Kakonge et al., 2000). This study, however, aims to use both primary and secondary data from nomads and other stakeholders.

Additionally, the research aims at establishing the relationship between the perceptions, desires and challenges gathered through the research instruments to those purported to be the causes of low participation in education by nomads in literature. In a quest to achieve the above research aims, the following specific questions are addressed by this study.

1.3 Research questions

From the above discussions in the problem statement and broad research aims, the study answers the following specific research questions.

1. What policies are in place for including nomads in educational access in Kenya?
2. What are the evidences/structures in the field for these policies?
3. How do policy implementers perceive education for nomads?
4. What are the perceptions of nomads concerning formal education?
5. How do nomads prefer education to be provided for them?
6. What challenges do all stakeholders (nomads, policy makers, and implementers) face in the provision, access, and implementation of education for nomads?

In finding answers to the above research questions, more specific questions to collect data from the field have been developed as discussed in chapter 3.

1.4 Outline of thesis

The research thesis is organized into five chapters as follows:

Chapter 1 comprises the introduction - the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the aims of the study, the research questions and the outline of the thesis;

Chapter 2 provides the literature review, focusing on what scholars, researchers, and government documents have written about nomadic education provision. The issues discussed here are nomads in Kenya, challenges affecting nomads in educational access, the education structure of Kenya, the concept of education for all, educational approaches and policies in Kenya and opportunities available for exploitation;

Chapter 3 deals with the research design and the methodology, the methods of data collection are discussed in detail. The sample and sampling procedures plus the difficulties encountered in reaching the sample are discussed. Validity and ethical issues of the research are also discussed. Lastly, reflections from the fieldwork are discussed in terms of challenges and lessons learnt;

Chapter 4 presents the discussions of findings and data analysis of the study. It is providing cross integration of the data from the field and the literature. Chapter 5 deals with summary, recommendations and way forward for implementations and further research.

Chapter two: Literature review

2.0 Introduction

Educating nomads in Kenya is becoming increasingly important because of the attributed projection in accelerating development, employability, improving democracy, health and unity (MOEST, 2005b). Governments around the world have signed up to the international pledges of EFA, Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and human rights declarations which all have a bearing in determining education and other services provided by these governments. These commitments made by UN member countries including Kenya rekindled the need and thinking to reach out to the groups and communities, such as nomads, who have traditionally been marginalized from access to education (Dyer, 2006).

As a result of self and international pressure arising out of the need to increase human capital and the commitments made in the above UN meetings respectively, Kenya has taken some steps to improve education access. However, before discussing the programmes implemented for the realization of the above commitments; a brief discussion on nomads of Northern Eastern Kenya and the challenges affecting their educational access is made so that one is able to comprehend the whole study.

2.1 Nomads of Kenya

In Kenya, nomadic pastoralists are people who keep livestock as a source of livelihood through sale and use of livestock and its products. The nomadic pastoral regions of Kenya are characterized by climate that ranges from arid and semi-arid, and high temperatures with less than 750 mm of rain a year. The arid and semi-arid lands (ASALs) cover over 75% of the 582,646 km² of Kenya's total area, home to 30% of the total population and nearly half of the country's livestock population (Oxfam, 2006). In most parts of ASALs, the soils are poor and rains are unreliable consequently farming is impossible, making pastoralism the only possible form of productive land use (Oxfam, 2006).

Due to the above conditions, nomads in Wajir regularly move in search of water and pasture for their only source of livelihood, livestock. These circumstances together with lack of deliberate developmental programmes by the central government have left the ASALs to lag behind the other regions of Kenya in all aspects as 'pastoralists are usually isolated and remote from central governments...across international borders' (Krätli, 2001:13).

As is common with any lifestyle, nomads have their own social, economical and political ways of managing their affairs and are in most cases 'independent' of the state jurisdiction (Krätli, 2001). They have their own ways of education such as the informal indigenous apprenticeship, learning life skills, and a more organized religious learning system where children are taught reading, memorizing, and writing the Holy Koran.

Due to their mobile lifestyle, nomads have not been accessing static social amenities such as formal education and health nor have these services been availed within their setting. Currently, nomads can only access formal education by settling permanently, taking their children to boarding schools, or placing the children under the care of a relative in the settled lifestyle. These practices of accessing education are pursued only by very few and a large number of nomadic children are out of formal schooling.

The nature of the nomadic lifestyle and the harsh climatic conditions coupled with designed marginalization by the state over the years exacerbated the ills that are attributed to the nomadic lifestyle. The Minority Rights Group International states that,

‘the decline of pastoralism was not halted or slowed by the independence and Africa’s self rule; it was accelerated’ (Markakis 2004:9)’.

and more recently Oxfam International in its advocacy campaign states that,

‘years of economic and political marginalization have resulted in the ASALs being the most under developed areas in Kenya ... basic services are not provided and inhabitants have poor health and low education’ (Oxfam 2006:2)’.

Prior to the above, the colonial rulers grabbed prime pastureland occupied by the pastoralists and gave it to settlers for farming with the non-nomadic people continuously pushed into power lands for farming.

2.2 Challenges to education for nomads

After laying the ground through the discussion about nomads, this section will look at challenges facing nomadic communities to access formal education. These challenges are discussed in two ways; first the perceived challenges and then the structural challenges.

2.2.1 Perceived challenges

The perceived challenges stem from the way others, policy makers included, see nomadic people and their way of life. Many hold the view that these are ignorant, uncultured and unwilling people resulting in their exclusion from education and decision-making that affects them as Ismail (2002:3) explains;

“The pastoralists system was thought to be destructive of natural resources. They used human resources inefficiently and were unable to use the social services available. There was therefore no need to provide educational services or responses”.

It is claimed by the MOEST (2001:14) that pastoralists in Kenya avoid education especially for ‘girls for fear of being molested or raped’ which may not be the case because crime rates in Kenya according to police reports are lowest in North Eastern Province where almost all inhabitants are nomads. However, the fact is schools are out of reach for them to attend regularly.

Another perceived challenge is based on the common misconception that unless nomadic communities change to a settled way of life they cannot be educated. As is illustrated by Ismail (2002:5) below;

“Previous and current policies aimed at developing the pastoral system appear inappropriate, but policy makers are still affected by myths and continue to believe that sedentarization is the best way for all. The result is that in terms of education there remains a gap between what the formal education system offers and what pastoral people want for their children”.

Tahir (2006:14) also contends that nomads are considered as the ‘other’... , depicted as inferior persons whose ways of life had to become sedentary if development and education services were to be brought to them’. These abstract concepts have consciously or unconsciously shaped the current education system leading to some structural challenges as discussed below.

2.2.2 Structural challenges

As opposed to the perceived challenges above, there are several structural challenges arising from policies and programmes that intersect with political motivations and educational inheritances. Poverty is one such a challenge and according to Kakonge (2006:65) education is seen as ‘a panacea for lifting people out of poverty’; therefore the absence of nomadic children from schooling is expected to aggravate this challenge. According to Republic of Kenya (2004) over 50% of Kenyans are living below the poverty line and North Eastern Province has the highest poverty incidence of 58%. Nevertheless, in countries where education for nomads was carried out, income-generating activities have been used to boost

enrolment, increase household income and enable learners to use their education and training in practical ways (Krätli, 2001; Muhammad, 2006; Gatasha, 2006)

According to the MOEST (2001) there are other challenges inhibiting education even for the settled people, such as the decline in relevance and quality of education. Education is supposed to be useful for the day-to-day life activities but Ezeomah (2006) claims that as it is now; formal education seems to be irrelevant to the lifestyle of nomads in terms of curriculum, timetabling and the distance to schools.

Nomads are by nature mobile while the orientation of formal education in Kenya requires full time attendance. These arrangements increase costs and limit access to education for nomadic people whose children are a source of labour. A school-based system according to Krätli and Dyer (2009:14) ‘conflicts with functional mobility patterns which, in dryland areas, remain a key strategy for enhancing animal production’, and therefore suggest structural organisation of both pastoralism and school system. Although basic education is free and compulsory for all children, the norms dictate that if nomads are to access formal education they should settle at permanent villages (Krätli with Dyer, 2006). These issues are at odds with the lifestyle and learning system of nomads that use mother tongue, apprenticeship, and mentoring to integrate the ‘herders’ of tomorrow into nomadic lifestyle.

Crucial to any education programme is the teacher; teachers in Kenya are by design prepared for the teaching of formal schools for settled children. Further, there is a shortage of teacher supply due to freezing of teacher employment, except replacing the retired and the dead,

with the nomadic regions most affected. Although not assessed, teachers have either low regard for pastoralists' norms and values or are ill equipped to handle nomadic education. This is supported by an evaluation report on mobile schools in Wajir compiled by Nomadic Primary Health Care (NPHC) (2000). The mobile schoolteachers are drawn from within that family and usually are 'drop outs' from primary schools as others outside the nomadic setting do not like to serve nomads. Thus lack of willing people outside the nomadic families to be trained as mobile schoolteachers is a major impediment.

Generally policies for nomadic education are prepared without including them while others are imposed by donor agencies that are ignorant of the needs of these people and are seen to curtail development. Kenneth (2007:358) argues that 'one of the concerns that lie behind the national–international trade-off is whether the resulting strategies can be said to constitute Kenyan policy or policy for Kenya.' However, there are affirmative policies targeting nomads such as hardship and transport allowances for teachers in ASAL areas and emergency grants for ASAL secondary schools (Kakonge, 2006).

2.3 Education structure in Kenya

Kenya has had strong education systems as is evidenced by the production of high quality human resource over the last four and a half decades. The structure of Kenya's education system was 7 years in primary, 4 years in secondary, 2 years in high school and 3 years minimum in the university from independence until 1985 when 8-4-4 system of education (8 years in primary school, 4 years in secondary and 4 years minimum in University) was introduced (MOEST, 2001).

In Kenya, education is divided into three main sections: basic education, tertiary and higher education. Basic education comprises primary and secondary education. Primary schools are composed of day primary schools, low cost boarding schools, medium cost boarding schools, high cost boarding schools, and arid zone primary schools. Secondary schools have a similar break down with different labels. Alongside the above is adult and early childhood education, the latter being physically considered as part of the primary cycle but practically a community activity and the adult education is under the Ministry of Gender, Sports, culture and Social Services. These bureaucratic educational arrangements seem to be inappropriate for nomads, who, as described earlier are in constant struggle for their survival. However, according to MOEST (2004) steady enrolments have been realized for primary schools countrywide; in 1963 there were 891,533 pupils only while this rose to 7.3 million in 2004 but more than 70% of nomadic children are still out of schools.

2.4 Education for all

2.4.1 The overarching principles of EFA

The purpose of this section is to discuss the features of EFA. The features signify ways and means of providing education outside formal systems which is what nomads and others out of mainstream society require. Maeda (2009) argues that education provision in Kenya needs 'cultural hybridity' to lessen the social and political tensions by including traditional knowledge. The argument augurs well for the integration of the indigenous nomadic education and formal education. These 'cultural hybridity' is what EFA features posit for attaining literacy globally as discussed below.

The first world meeting on education held in Jomtein, Thailand 1990 and the subsequent meetings at Jordan 1996, South Africa 1999 and Dakar 2000 all reinforce the right for basic education for all children. The most important was the Dakar meeting, which gave clear objectives with deadlines and the features of EFA are embedded in the six broad aims of The Dakar Framework for Action, paragraph 7¹ (UNESCO, 2000).

2.4.2 Features of EFA

The precursor of EFA is rooted in the human rights declaration of 1948 and the International Convention on The Rights of the Child adopted in 1989 ratified by 192 states among other regional and world forums which clearly spells out the need to protect, care for, and provide children with all necessities including basic education (UNESCO, 2007; Tomasevski, 2004). The emphasis and outcomes from the above forums form some of the fundamentals for EFA.

The main objective of EFA is to increase literacy levels worldwide as Article 3 of the Dakar framework for action states ‘that all children, youth and adults ... benefit from education that will meet their basic learning needs in the best and fullest sense of the term, an education that includes

¹ The six EFA objectives are: Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children; Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality; Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programme; Achieving a 50 percent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults; Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in Education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls’ full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality; Improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning Outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

learning to know, to do, to live together and to be'. Article 7 has all the six objectives with deadlines and targets to achieve (UNESCO, 2000).

The objectives stated in article 7 of The Dakar framework for Action, point to the direction EFA programmes are expected to take by incorporating new ideas and perspectives in education provision and learning. From the objectives, the following features surface: the EFA programme is meant to go beyond mainstream formal education by embracing larger customers across the society; adults, youth and children; EFA programme does not recommend a number of years of study for one to complete nor certify completion as formal education; learning is lifelong and commensurate with basic needs of all types of knowledge including traditional as illustrated by goal number III of EFA which calls on states to 'promote learning and life skills for young people and adults' and lastly learning takes place anywhere, with activities and strategies that are suitable and diverse.

In Kenya, the planning and implementation of EFA programmes are done in collaboration with other government Ministries, civil society, and NGOs, giving it an interactive sector wide approach (MOEST, 2005b). However, the practical implementation of these ideals entirely rests with political will of the government (UNESCO, 2000).

Education attainment is seen as one of the major factors that determine life chances and opportunities to escape poverty (MOEST, 2005b), thus through education, benefits from personal to national are enhanced. According to Psacharopoulos (1988) cited in Njeru and Orodho (2003), educational returns in Africa indicate a public social rates return of 26% for primary, 17% secondary and 13%, higher education whereas the individual returns are

estimated at 45% for primary level, 26% for secondary and 32% at higher education. From this, it is evident that both the public and individual returns of education are highest at primary levels.

Due to the realization of the significance of education, the UN in conjunction with other NGOs initiated a Fast Track Initiative (FTI) programme meant to identify and fund countries with plausible plans for EFA activities. FTI is also involved in monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of EFA in all countries. In Kenya, the MOEST partnered with other stakeholders in the preparation of Kenya Education Sector Support Programme (KESSP) 2005-2010, containing five year investment plan for 23 programme areas one of which is to expand educational opportunities in ASALs, home to most nomads in the country.

In Kenya, there is growing demand for the extension of education beyond the formal settings because of the socio-economic diversities among the beneficiaries. In response to this need, implementation of EFA in Kenya took the forms of building more schools, abolishing school fees, establishing community schools and enhancing adult education at permanent villages. The most recent features of EFA in Kenya are the introduction of FPE in 2003 and tuition free secondary education in 2008 countrywide. However, due to absence of proper planning and political will to include all, education continues to serve only those who are able to access it in its current form, leaving out vulnerable groups like nomads.

2.5 Educational approaches and policies in Kenya

2.5.1 Free primary education(FPE)

Kenya, being a signatory to the human rights declaration and the International Convention on the Rights of the Child adopted The Children's Act Cap 493 in 2001. This came as a result of the need to legislate and domesticate the rights of children as enshrined in the international documents above. The Act, thus contributed to the launching of FPE programme by providing for the following:

Section 7(1) of the Children's Act makes education a right for every child and the responsibility for its provision shared between the government and the parents;

Section 8 gives every child a right to religious education subject to appropriate parental guide;

Section 10 protects every child from economic exploitation and any work (child labour) that is hazardous or interfering with the child's education, harmful to child's health, physical, mental spiritual, moral, or social development;

Section 12 has special provision for disabled children such as appropriate medical treatment, special care, education, and training free of charge or at reduced costs;

Section 47 empowers the Minister to establish rehabilitation of schools to provide accommodation and facilities for their (disabled children) care and protection. (Republic of Kenya, Cap 493 of Kenya laws)

Under FPE, the government in conjunction with the donor communities provide 1020 Kenya Shillings per child to cater for various expenses (OWN & Associates, 2004). This excludes teachers' salary which already consumes the largest proportion of the education budget where 'about 86% of the fiscal resources to primary schools is used to pay teachers salary' (Wainaina, 2005:188). According to Elimu Yetu Coalition (2007) enrolments increased to 7.8 million by 2007 as a result of FPE but still over 1.9 million school age children are out of school.

Table 2.0 Primary Schools Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) by province, 2003-2007 in %

Province	2003			2004			2005			2006			2007		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Coast	87	74	80	97	84	91	96	84	90	101	92	96	101	91	96
Central	102	101	102	102	100	101	107	103	105	103	101	102	97	93	95
Eastern	116	115	116	121	117	119	126	124	125	127	126	127	130	126	128
Nairobi	39	44	41	41	46	43	36	38	37	39	42	40	50	52	51
Rift Valley	110	103	106	113	104	109	118	110	114	116	109	112	119	110	114
Western	137	123	130	143	126	134	148	134	141	141	131	136	152	136	143
Nyanza	128	123	125	126	117	122	128	121	124	129	127	128	132	124	128
North Eastern	32	19	26	34	19	27	34	21	28	33	21	28	38	23	31
Total	105	101	103	108	102	105	110	104	107	109	106	107	111	104	108

Source: MOEST, Education Information Management Systems (EMIS), unit (2008)

However, table 2.0 shows the disparities in enrolments even after the introduction of FPE in the different provinces in Kenya. North Eastern Province, including Wajir, my study area, posts the lowest enrolment for all the years given. This is a manifestation of the sharp disparity regularly mentioned in all government documents but with very few responsive activities to address. The total GER of North Eastern Province for 2003 was 26% and for 2007 was 31% giving a difference of only 5%, demonstrating that many children, most of whom are nomadic, are absent from formal education. The only other district with low enrolment is Nairobi possibly because Nairobi had 1044 private primary schools (MOEST, 2008) and the above enrolments are those of public primary schools. Secondly, it could be due to high poverty in the slums, street children and child labour which are challenges to accessing education in Nairobi (MOEST 2005b).

Table 2.1 Primary Schools GER for North Eastern Province, 2003-2007 in %

Districts	2003			2004			2005			2006			2007		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Garissa	50	31	41	50	29	41	28	18	23	30	22	26	32	21	27
Wajir	24	14	19	24	13	19	28	18	24	25	16	21	28	18	24
Mandera	49	26	38	52	27	40	50	27	40	49	25	38	59	33	47
Ijara	49	26	38	52	27	40	28	18	24	31	22	27	33	21	27
Total	32	19	26	34	19	27	34	21	28	33	21	28	37	23	31

Source: MOEST Education management information systems (EMIS) unit, (2008)

Table 2.1 shows enrolments for North Eastern Province illustrating the huge disparities that exist between the districts. The province seems not to be responding to the policy of FPE with less than 35% of the eligible children enrolled. Wajir district which is the concern of this study posts the lowest GER throughout the years. The above enrolments are a combination of both those from the settled section of the society and few nomads. However, the exact population of nomadic children accessing schools is not known at this stage.

2.5.2 Boarding schools

This programme was born out of the government's urge to extend education provision to the areas where access and enrolments were lagging behind. According to the Republic of Kenya (1978) cited in Sifuna (2005) and Republic of Kenya (2004), and Bunya (2006) these are the poorest areas in the country where the government will encourage nomads to attend primary schools by constructing boarding schools.

Due to this, it was envisaged that nomadic children could: stay in boarding schools as their parents migrated; improve their diet and reduce walking distance to schools (Kakonge, 2006). However, Carr-Hill and Peart (2005:62) argue that in Kenya 'reference is uncritically made to primary boarding schools when the issue of nomadic education is raised although these petered out in the 1980s', a claim that echoes the situation of boarding schools in nomadic areas but Kakonge (2006:66) suggests that there is 'a grant for the establishment of low-cost boarding primary and secondary schools in ASALs..

Sifuna (1991) observes that boarding schools are yet to trigger the forecasted success because parents could not afford their share of the cost. Although the boarding fees are

described as ‘low cost’ by policy makers, it proved otherwise for the poor parents, resulting in poor school attendance and new trend of dropouts (MOEST, 2001). Additionally, it is argued by Souza (2006) that at boarding schools the food is mainly vegetarian, facilities and the curriculum are alien for nomadic children. The boarding schools are instead filled by pupils from better-off districts (Sifuna, 1991) and settled communities who can afford payment of fees to sustain the programme. This encroachment into the boarding schools by children from settled communities ‘may render the prevailing school culture anti-pastoralists’ (Krätli with Dyer, 2006:17).

The growth of boarding schools concided with the introduction of a cost sharing policy that originated from the World Bank and IMF conditions on aid policy. Under this policy, parents had to bear most of school expenses, a situation that constrained the expectations of policy makers to improve educational access for nomadic children through such programmes.

2.5.3 School feeding programme (SFP)

This is yet another of the many programmes directed at improving nutrition, access and sustaining enrolments in poor parts of the country, especially ASALs that are prone to periodic droughts and high incidence of socio-economic insecurity. This was started in 1980s by the government with assistance from the UN World Food Programme (WFP) and according to the MOEST (2005b) and Kakonge (2006) SFP together with other health activities like de-worming and immunizations is currently serving 1.1 million children in 29 ASAL districts and two Nairobi slums.

SFP is still operational as opposed to the school milk programme that failed to take root due to logistical and financial reasons (Mukudi, 2004; Republic of Kenya, 2002). The SFP continues in the ASAL districts through donor support and has helped to keep many children in schools who otherwise will have dropped out (MOEST, 2005b). However, Carr-Hill et al (2005) conclude that the impact of SFP on access and retention in North Eastern Province of Kenya has been negligible, citing challenges such as exaggerated enrolments, insufficient and late supply due to transport problems.

2.5.4 Bursaries to Secondary Students

The third programme is use of bursaries targeting bright students from poor families introduced as mitigation against the consequences of cost sharing (Njeru and Orodho, 2003) with additional emergency fund for ASAL secondary schools during drought and floods (Kakaonge, 20006) in the form of food for bursary. The MOEST allocates bursaries in line with school enrolments rather than the number of needy students or poverty incidences. The money is managed by the Constituency Bursary Fund through a committee headed by the area Member of Parliament who also nominates its members while the MOEST is represented by an Education officer. Students apply through their schools to the committee and the committee awards the bursaries to students in line with MOEST guidelines.

Although the scheme has helped many students to be retained in schools, management of bursaries needs improvement. It is argued that the policy benefits those who are well placed in the society contradicting the rationale for the bursary scheme of ensuring that no bright

poor child misses secondary education (Njeru and Orodho, 2003; MOEST, 2004; Daily Nation, 2009).

Most of the above programmes either did not last long or are in dwindling situations because it has become usual no prior planning is made (Sifuna, 1991). Education programmes in Kenya are politically motivated rather than morally and professionally. For example, FPE programmes from the 1970s to the latest of 2003 have come through election pledges. Thus, most educational initiatives such as FPE, formation of education commissions, task forces to the lowest level committees, are all politically entrenched (Sifuna, 2005). This seems to have its roots in the assumption and practice that suggestions for education improvements can be from any including head of states and Ministers with no background of education profession and that such a change does not require expertise as in other professions. This reliance on non-experts could be a pointer as to why educational problems continue despite repeated efforts to solve them, wasting valuable resources.

2.6 Mobile schools²

Mobile schools have become an alternative way of providing education for people out of formal education. Nigeria, which is one of the countries that embraced mobile schools, introduced a curriculum with nomadic friendly subjects such as animal husbandry. Teachers were given three year training and a national commission has been formed with support from research centres at various universities. The Nigerian government provided the necessary

² These have been piloted by NPHC from 1995 to 2003, and are now being piloted by the government in collaboration with other NGOs.

policy and other services (see table 2.2) to ensure education was accessible to nomads (Ezeomah, 2006).

Table: 2.2 Assessments of nomadic education activities

S/NO	Activity	Rating
1.	Co-operative Society	Very successful
2.	Veterinary essential services	Very successful
3.	Income generation/women programme	Successful
4.	Radio Programme	Very successful
5.	Adult education	Successful
6.	Training workshops	Successful

Source: Alhaji, (2001)

It is evident from table 2.2 that education for nomads requires sector wide development support such as providing veterinary services and poverty reduction programmes. In Kenya for nomads to embrace education, they need health, water and grazing services among other developments. In Mongolia, where educating nomads is mentioned as a success, the authorities combined reorganisation of labour, provision of free education, enforced compulsory attendance and provided a string of free boarding facilities (Kräfli, 2001) which are possible options that can be borrowed for the education of nomads in Kenya .

In Wajir, mobile schools were started in 1994 by NPHC, a local NGO with the objective of increasing literacy among nomadic pastoralists. Teachers for the mobile schools were either Koran teachers or school dropouts drawn from within the nomadic family who were given short training on the subject content and methods. Most of these mobile schools were integrated into existing Koran schools within the nomadic families. Learning in the mobile

schools was tailored to the daily routine of nomads so that children and adults could learn at their convenient times.

Mobile schools have a resemblance to basic education by open and distance learning as described by Dodds and Edirisingha (2000) by mixing audiences of adults and children as shown in table 2.3. Consequently, Pennells and Ezeomah (2000) suggest open and distance education (ODE) for nomads as they think that it has the flexibility to preserve the nomadic lifestyle, culture and other traditional behaviours of the learners.

In Wajir, mobile schools use formal curriculum with subjects such as Mathematics, English and Kiswahili (NPHC, 1999; Carr-Hill et al., 2005), while at the same time children continue learning informally and non-formally from their daily nomadic routine. The school has a kit containing basic textbooks, chalk, solar lamp and portable blackboard and learning is usually under the shade of tree although in recent times a tent and a camel for transportation have been provided.

According to a NPHC (2003/2004) brief report on mobile schools, there is high teacher drop out, limited capacities to roll out to other parts of the district, frequent clan conflicts and lack of funds. Some of the children from the mobile schools transit to nearby primary schools while the majority remain in their setting as shown in table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Mobile School enrolments by 2003

Name of zone	No. of schools	Adults			Children			Grand total	Transition
		Male	female	Total	Male	Female	Total		
Bute	13	45	49	94	96	82	178	272	54
Habaswein	9	25	30	55	75	61	136	191	46
Hadado	3	2	3	5	7	6	13	18	9
Khorof-Harar	8	45	28	73	51	31	82	155	37
Giriftu	2	6	14	20	13	9	22	42	15
Total	35	123	124	245	242	189	431	678	161

Source: NPHC, (2003/2004)

2.7 Adult education

Adult education is another programme in Kenya with the aim of increasing literacy and improving life skills acquisition among the adults and out of school youths. It has a number of ongoing programmes such as basic adult literacy, post literacy, non-formal education and community training and development targeting to enhance literacy and life skills (MOEST 2005a, 2005b). According to Republic of Kenya (2008) Adult Education in Kenya is provided by various stakeholders and it operates under the Board of Adult education established in 1966 through an Act of Parliament, Cap 223 laws of Kenya. The Board is mandated to co-ordinate, advice and regulate promotion of Adult and Continuing education (ACE). However, adult education programmes are confined to the permanent settlements of the country and nomads remain excluded. Adult education therefore provides an opportunity for nomads to be educated as it has already been tried with adults at settled centres and where mobile schools are being piloted.

2.8 Other opportunities

Educational opportunities for nomadic communities in Kenya are low as such chances are regionally entrenched. According to the EFA Global monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2009:26) ‘enjoyment of education is heavily conditioned by lottery of birth and inherited circumstances’. In Kenya, education is in favour of agricultural zones as most educational institutions were placed and planned for those areas by the colonial government and maintained by the independent Kenya. This immensely contributed to the racial-regional disparities in education and other resources since people were divided and settled along ethnic lines (Alwy and Schech, 2004; Goldsmith, 2003).

However, the approaches already discussed in this chapter such as FPE, boarding schools, SFP and bursaries are opportunities nomads can exploit. Additionally, education management in Kenya is decentralised where some basic decisions are made by school management committees and this could help nomads to introduce what they desire on how learning should take place. But as Sasaoka and Nishimurra (2009) argue decentralization restrains participation because of capacity and perceptions gaps and this is a likely hindrance for nomads.

According to UNESCO (2008) funding for EFA in sub-Sahara has been increased and this can be harnessed to improve education of nomads. One such way of increased funding is the provision of school feeding programme in the formal schools that could be extended to nomadic people so that their children may perhaps be attracted to learning.

2.9 Conclusion

The chapter discussed the concept of EFA from an international perspective before discussing in detail Kenya's domestication of this international idea. Furthermore, the glaring disparities and gaps of educational access for nomadic regions are juxtaposed with non-nomadic regions.

It is evident from the fore going discussions that education is needed for the nomadic people of Kenya and unless deliberate policies and functional programmes are put in place, educating pastoralists will continue to be elusive.

2.10 Theoretical framework for the study

2.10.1 Introduction

The research is guided by a Human Capital and a Rights Based Approach. As discussed below, the two approaches contain frameworks on which nomadic education can be conceptualised as education is a basic right through which knowledge and skills are acquired, consequently boosting the individual socio-economic status that is essentially required for nomads.

2.10.2 Human Capital Approach

Human capital theory rests on the assumption that formal education is highly instrumental and even necessary to improve the production capacity of a population (Olaniyan and Okemakinde, 2008). This is mainly because formal education has dominated our systems

and is the only type of education acceptable in our modern times, however, other forms of education: non-formal and informal are known to contribute to human skills necessary for economic improvement³. In Kenya, investment in human capital is seen as an exit from poverty and therefore is one of the areas of economic recovery and strategy areas identified by the government (MOEST 2005a). Human capital entails the need to have a skilled population who will in turn contribute to the economic growth. According to the MOEST (2005a) studies conducted in Kenya indicate a strong correlation between education, human capital and earnings, however, the inequitable access to education in Kenya hinders social, economic and political participation by nomads.

Educating nomads is one of the ways to improve their human capital: increasing their skills improves their ability to compete for better life while contributing to the economy of the country. Once educated, nomads are expected to manage their livestock and the environment well, participate in democracy and benefit from other services. It is therefore against this background that educating nomads needs to be given a priority. While contributing the economic growth, investing in human capital helps directly to empower the masses to stand up for their rights as well as that of others. This leads to the role Rights Based Approach plays in the education for nomads.

³ For example, in Kenya the famous ‘Juan kali’ project has contributed to the economy of the country although those involved may not have been through formal education. Youths were involved in the production of various items such as energy saving cooking containers, basins and storage metal boxes

2.10.3 Rights Based Approach (RBA)

Human rights activists view education as a basic human right and contend that it is the obligation of the state to ensure the Availability, Accessibility, Acceptability and Adaptability of education to all its citizens. The following box explains what the 4 A's entail.

Box 1 RBA guidelines

1. Availability-

- Obligation to ensure compulsory education and free for all children in the country within a determined age range, up to at least the minimum age of employment.
- Obligation to respect parental freedom to choose education for their children, observing the principle of the best interests of the child.

2. Accessibility

- Obligation to eliminate exclusion from education based on internationally prohibited grounds of discrimination (race, colour, sex, language, religion, opinion, origin, economic status, birth social or HIV/AIDS status, minority or religious status, disability).
- Obligation to eliminate gender and racial discrimination by ensuring equal enjoyment of all human rights in practice, rather than only formally prohibiting discrimination.

3. Acceptability

- Obligation to set minimum standards for education, including the medium of instruction, contents and methods of teaching, and to ensure their observance in all education institutions.
- Obligation to improve the quality of education by ensuring that the entire education system conforms to all human rights.

4. Adaptability

- Obligation to design and implement education for children excluded from formal schooling (e.g. refugees, or internally displaced children, children deprived of their liberty, or working children).
- Obligation to adapt education to the best interests of each child, especially regarding children with disabilities, or minority and indigenous children.

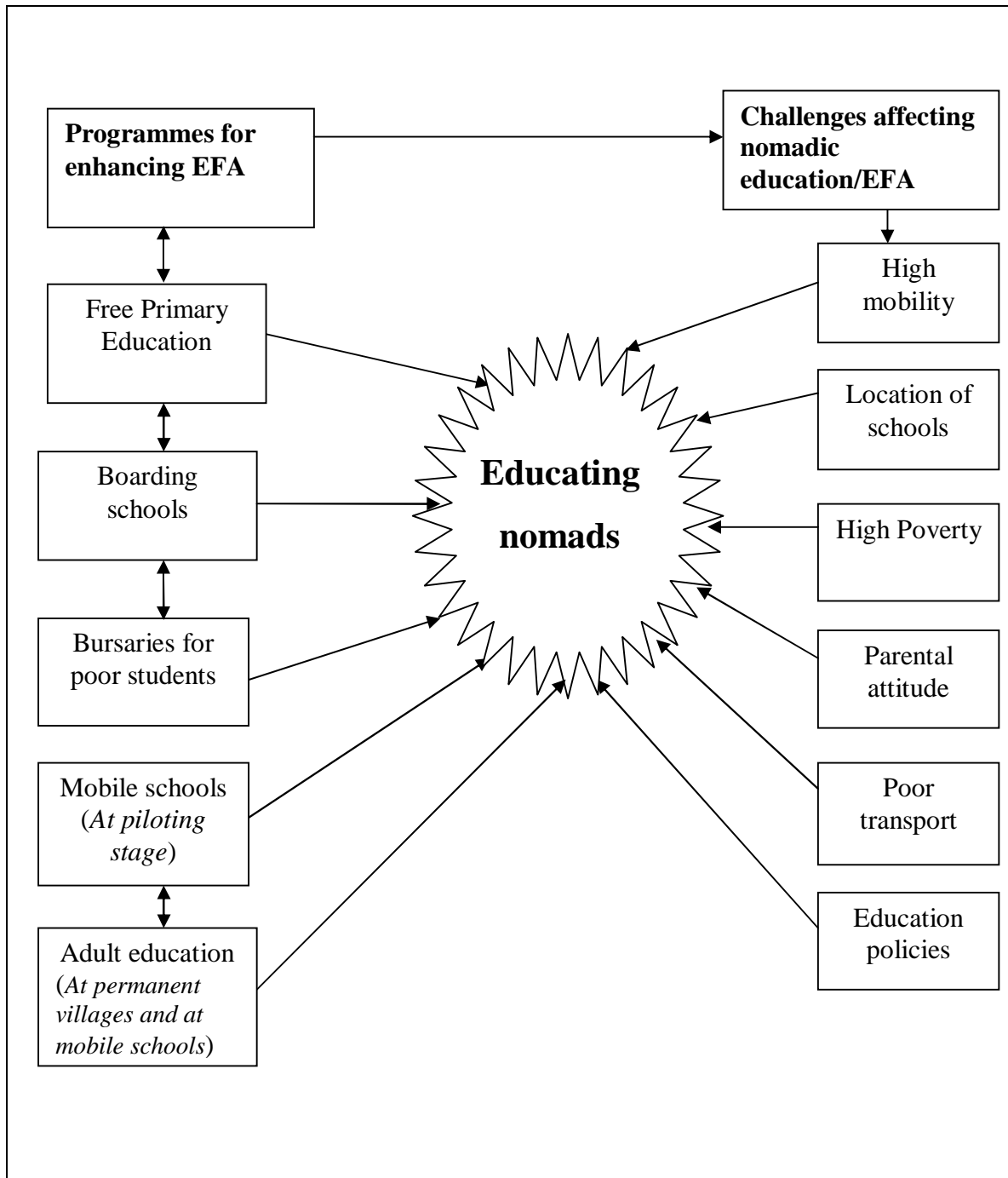
Source: www.unesco.org

Since the human rights declaration of the 1948⁴, education has largely been viewed as a basic right for all. As mentioned in the literature, the Dakar conference on EFA and MDGs affirm and recognise that human right is the basis for education provision. Kenya embraced this obligation by ensuring education for all as ways of upholding human right, reducing poverty and enhancing democracy (MOEST, 2005b). Other players in nomadic education such as NGOs are driven by the urge to accomplish education as a basic human right.

Nomads are very vulnerable in all aspects of life and therefore need an education system that provides equality of opportunity, a broad relevant and inclusive curriculum and respect for identity among many others issues advocated by RBA. This is what mobile schools currently under piloting are trying to achieve. According to the RBA guidelines, education for nomads should be: compulsory and free, non-discriminatory, designed to fit to the interests of the child and meet national standards. One of the principles that inform RBA is the interdependence and interrelatedness of all rights (UNESCO, 2007) for example, the realisation of FPE and the realisation of basic needs such as shelter, food, health and water are mutually reinforcing rights, and thus the absence of one right weakens the realisation of many others. Therefore, prior to developing education, availability of basic needs such as clean water, health and security are necessary for nomads to access education.

⁴ Everyone has the right to education...education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding ,tolerance and friendship among all nations....(Article 26, universal declaration of Human rights)

2.11 The conceptual framework of the study



Chapter three: Research Methodology

3.0 Introduction

The section explores the actual procedures of conducting the research by discussing the methodology, methods of data collection, the sample and sampling procedures and data analysis. The validity of the research instruments and ethical issues of the research are also discussed.

3.1 The research design

3.1.1 Cross-sectional design

In this research, the design integrates the main research question to research aims, objectives, the literature, methodology, methods and techniques and the setting of the study as is recommended by Robson (2002). It is from the main research topic that the specific research questions and the subsequent data collecting instruments have been developed.

For this study, cross-sectional design is preferred because of its ability to deal with various cases and variables, and its suitability with quantitative and qualitative methods (Bryman, 2008) while the short period of fieldwork due to the constraints of the programme of study adds to its choice. This largely rules out experimental, case studies, longitudinal and panel designs which either require more time and resources or are very narrow as in case studies. The participants for this research took part in the study only once and none among them

pulled out of the study during the fieldwork which could be a possible draw back in case other designs were used.

In this study, the different subsamples: teachers and education officials; students and nomads act as cases with their different needs, education and lifestyle backgrounds. These different sub-samples have different perceptions and views regarding education for nomads, helping my research to collect diverse data to deal with the study from varied perspectives. Bryman (2008) contends that cross-sectional design helps to deal with various categories or cases simultaneously and this matches with the use of mixed methodology for this research as discussed below.

Cross-sectional design has a limited dimension and data is collected one time and quickly with little time lapse. Therefore, it relies on existing differences at that particular time of data collection than change resulting from interventions. Here, the sample used is based on existing differences rather than on random allocation, a feature that is consistent with this study (De Vaus, 2001). These distinctive features are in one way or another present in the sample, the research instruments and the data for this research. The literature review and fieldwork go beyond snapshot by discussing the historical and current issues about the situation for nomadic education.

3.2 Methodology

In terms of data collection, the research uses a mixed methods approach to accomplish the research goals, which require diverse information from diverse stakeholders. Mixed

methods approach as the name suggests is where quantitative and qualitative methodologies are combined in carrying out a study. Various names are used to refer to this approach but all the terms refer to one thing in different words and the most common term is Mixed Methods Research (Johnson et al., 2007). The range of methods within the qualitative and quantitative methodologies provides a more complete and comprehensive picture (Bryman, 2008) in relationship to nomads and formal education for this study. Here, the assumption is that the mixing of qualitative and quantitative data is sensible because numbers, tables or graphs alone without narrative explanations and vice versa may not provide enough ideas.

The use of different data collecting methods helped my research to deal with the complexities of studying nomadic lifestyles and education for nomads. The complexity comes from the mismatch of the nature of nomads who are regularly shifting in search of water and grass for their animals and the rigid orientation of formal education. Education process itself is seen to be complex entailing meeting the needs of all its 'will be' consumers. This rigidity of formal education coupled with the perspectives of the various stakeholders including nomads call for a need to solicit views to harness these diversities in responding to the quantitative and qualitative questions within the research instruments, therefore the need for mixed methodology. This is what Bryman (2008) refers to as 'diversity of views' as a way of mixing qualitative and quantitative approaches.

The strengths of mixing methods lie in combining the separate strengths of each. For example, qualitative approaches have the advantage of getting the insider's perspectives, the actor's definition of the situation and the meaning people attach to things and events. In contrast, quantitative approaches have the advantage of being systematic and presenting data

in more handy ways such as the use of, numbers and graphs (Creswell and Clark, 2007; Punch, 2006; Bryman, 2008), meaning therefore the two approaches build on each other to demystify the contexts of study. Due to the uniqueness of the sample, three methods have been used and within each closed and open questions were constructed to capture their views to formal education. For example, interviews with nomadic parents provided in depth data about their attitude and perspectives to formal education. The focus group discussion with education officials and teachers provided an interactive forum through which participants gave information which otherwise would not have been gotten through individual interviews and the questionnaire gave chance to nomadic students who actually have the touch of both the formal education and nomadic lifestyle. Therefore the use of mixed methods captures these variations and merges them to answer the research questions comprehensibly.

In this study, mixing has been done through triangulation of methods for data collection and by integration of meaning in the data analysis and discussion as recommended by Gorard and Taylor (2004). According Bryman (2008) triangulation entails using more than one method or data in the study of a social phenomena resulting in greater confidence in findings. Results are mutually reinforcing in that the qualitative and quantitative data provide convergence of themes. The quantitative data indicates the main challenges as economic, parental attitude, policies and child labour similarly the qualitative data indicates the above strands of challenges. The data from the two approaches are merged for broad comprehension, verification and representation of the situation of nomads and formal education by cross checking the responses from field. The three methods of data collection have been designed as if each was the sole data collection method with overlapping questions.

In the data collection methods, both qualitative and quantitative questions have been used such that the data generated is put into numbers as well as narrative forms. Thus, the quantitative and qualitative data have been integrated by use of percentages, tables, narrative descriptions, concurrently interpreting and checking for harmony or disharmony in the results. The results indicate a convergence of responses from the field by the three samples.

In the field, I had informal discussions with different people but the most important was the one I had with an Education Officer (EO) in charge of education matters. These discussions helped me to introduce some prompts into the interview with nomadic parents.

3.3 Sample and sampling

The primary focus of much research is to find out about the views and characteristics of a population from a given perspective but because of the size and expanse of most populations, it is not practicable to study all of them. In order to study that population, researchers usually study a section of the population that is deemed to capture the characteristics of the whole population. The section of the population used in the study is called the sample (Best and Khan, 1986; Cohen et al., 2007; Bryman, 2008).

In this research, the population of interest is referred to as ‘the stakeholders of nomadic education in Wajir district, Kenya’. These stakeholders comprise parents, teachers, education officials, opinion leaders and children, where approximately 80% (population 533,587) are nomadic pastoralists, Kenya Food Security Steering Group (KFSSG 2008).

For such a large population spread over an area of 56,501km², it will be impossible for my one-year research to reach each and every member of this population.

Geographical cluster sampling was used in the identification of schools from which the students and teachers came. Cluster sampling is appropriate when the population of interest is 'scattered, and no list of the population exists' (Best and Khan, 1986:15). Wajir district covers a vast area with schools scattered widely and there is no list of nomadic students as they are part of others within schools, hence the appropriateness of using cluster sampling. The choice of nomadic students is mainly based on the fact that majority of nomadic children are inaccessible and are unaware of schools while the nomadic students have an experience of both formal education and nomadic lifestyle.

The study involved a sample of 78 people comprising 20 education officials and teachers, 50 nomadic⁵ students and eight nomadic parents. The 50 nomadic students were selected from three boarding secondary schools to complete the questionnaires. The three schools were chosen because they have a sizable population of nomadic students from different parts of the district. After I was introduced to the students by their respective teachers, I explained about my research to them while they were in their classrooms. I identified the nomadic students by simply asking for those who came from nomadic families as there were no lists of nomadic and non-nomadic students. 15- 20 students from different levels of study were chosen from each school and were brought together in one room for the completion of

⁵ The choice of only nomadic students in schools is based on the assumption that they are better placed to answer the main research question 'challenges faced by nomads in accessing formal education' and the fact that nomadic children out schools are not easily accessible and most are unaware of even the existence of schools. Nomadic students on the other hand have active interaction with both nomadic lifestyle and formal education, and are able to articulate their experiences and opinions vividly.

questionnaire. The questionnaires were then completed in my presence after reading and clarifying them. For the identification of nomadic parents I made a pre-visit to three places where nomads had converged because of some recent rains and had informal conversations with 25 nomads but only eight were available for the interview. Since I come from the area, it was not difficult to identify the nomadic parents but I could not get the 20 parents as planned.

The teachers were identified by visiting the same schools as the students; however those selected had experiences about nomadic lifestyle as part of their families were nomads. For the education officials who supervisor implementation of education policies, I contacted some by telephoning them directly, visited others in their offices or combined both styles; requesting them to participate in the FGD as this is in line with purposive sampling which Bryman (2008) argues involves sampling according to 'relevance'.

3.4 Methods

Semi-structured interviews with nomadic parents, focus group discussions with teachers and education officers and a questionnaire with nomadic students were used for the collection of data. The choice of these three instruments is in line with the nature and characteristics of the sample.

3.4.1 Design of instruments

All the research instruments were designed by me with help of my supervisor. Each of the instruments has been constructed as if it was the sole data collection instrument for the

study. I pre-piloted all research instruments at the University of Birmingham with some postgraduate students and academic staff. After this pre-piloting, necessary redesign and corrections were made and piloting was done in the field with sections of the target sample. Again after the actual piloting further corrections were made producing the final research instruments for the fieldwork (see Appendix).

3.4.2 Semi structured interviews

This instrument was purposely designed for the nomadic parents. The semi-structured schedules were designed to cover the main themes contained in the research questions, which were the challenges in accessing education, policies awareness among nomadic parents, preference of how education should be provided for nomads and perceptions of nomads in formal education.

The number of nomads targeted was 20 but I was able to interview only eight parents because they became inaccessible due to dry weather conditions, which is a determining factor in the lifestyle of nomads. The eight interviews were recorded and transcribed to English and it is from these interview transcripts that categorisation of the themes discussed in Chapter 4 were extracted.

In the field, people are accustomed to open discussions and at times it was difficult to interview nomadic parents alone, as others just joined in the process. A case in point is during my fieldwork while interviewing one parent, two others joined so I had to conduct a group interview.

Semi-structured interview was preferred for nomadic parents because they may not read and write, and are used to oral communication. This interaction with nomadic parents had the advantage of eliciting complete, complex and deep information that could otherwise be missed in the situation of other methods (Cohen et al., 2007). Because of my face-to-face dialogue with the parents I was able to clarify, probe and prompt using both the verbal and non-verbal responses where necessary as is recommended by Robson (2002).

3.4.3 Questionnaire

This instrument was designed for self-completion by nomadic students, providing for both closed and open-ended questions. The preference for a questionnaire for students is based on the fact that students are able to complete it without help, anonymously, and it is cheaper and quicker than other methods while reaching out to larger sample (Bryman, 2008; Cohen et al., 2007).

There were 14 questions in total, with some asking for extra explanations for responses given. Questions 3 and 5 asked for challenges faced by nomadic students and nomadic children in accessing formal education while question 4 and 6 were seeking ways of overcoming challenges and educating nomadic children. The completion of the questionnaire, which was done in my presence, gave me the chance to read and clarify the questions. During the supervision of the completion of questionnaire, I requested the students to answer all questions and collected the completed questionnaire immediately.

Three schools were involved; one girls' and two boys', with a total of 50 students, 30 boys and 20 girls.

3.4.4 Focus group discussion

Focus group discussion is said to be a type of group interview but the participants interact, argue and make joint construction on the topic of concern than making individualised contributions (Bryman, 2008). The suitability of the FGD for teachers and education officers is based on the basic assumption of involving people who have shared experiences; otherwise the expected interactions may be impossible.

The focus group discussion (FGD) for this study involved a total of 20 education officials, head teachers and teachers as Bryman (2008) asserts that FGD may involve more than 50 participants. The twenty participants were then divided into 4 groups to discuss each of the questions in the FGD schedule. This had the advantage of exploring issues of interest in a broad, free and interesting style where participants shared and debated as Bryman (2008) contends that the concern for the researcher in FGD is to capture how people respond to each others' views and build up a view out of the interactions.

The discussions were done at two levels, the first one between the smaller groups and the other in plenary between all participants. In the second level, where groups presented their findings, other participants were able to criticize, question and seek clarifications of the different findings presented by the smaller groups. This rigorous process produced refined

answers for the different sections of the FDG questions and by extension the overall research questions.

Each group had chosen a chairperson and a secretary to ease their discussion. In the processes, all the discussions were written down after agreement was reached. In the course of reporting to the larger group, there emerged more ideas and perspectives as others asked for clarification and questioned where necessary. I had to write these new ideas so that I incorporate them into their respective sections in the data. In the end, I had collected all the written work for the groups and compiled them to form my focus group data.

3.5 Validity of the research instruments

The validity of the research instruments for this research has been improved and checked by sharing with experts, developing systematically from literature background, professional knowledge and the research aims. The pre- piloting and piloting have also added value to the ability of the instruments to measure what they are expected to measure.

In this research, all the three research tools covered the same over-lapping themes and objectives so that the data obtained clarified, illustrated and complemented each other. This harmonization of research results helped strengthen the validity of the research as a whole.

The use of mixed methods enabled for the triangulation of methods which helps in the strengthening of the research as Robson (2002:174) argues that triangulation ‘enhances the rigour of the research’. He further adds that the triangulation of methods, methodology and

the data can help reduce researcher bias, respondent bias and threat to validity. As discussed earlier this process gave this research some sound basis to claim that it has established its objectives.

3.6 Data analysis

The analysis for research instruments has started at the design stage because the structures of the schedules were arranged into sections and themes in line with the research objectives and questions. The three methods of data collection contained both open and closed questions derived from the research objectives with predetermined themes. The simultaneous use of open and closed ended questions helped to cross-validate the data. For example, all the three subsamples were asked the challenges faced by nomadic children in accessing education with the aim of eliciting varied response from people with different views and needs for the same item.

The responses from questionnaire were fed into SPSS in summarised form that captured the main points expressed. The responses to open-ended questions were re-examined, read and re-read in order to identify emerging themes. These themes were colour coded differently and fed into SPSS again as new variables to establish the number of times each theme was mentioned. When the analysis was run, frequency tables were produced showing the percentage of respondents mentioning each theme.

The transcribed responses from the semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions were categorised into thematic patterns and were used to provide further explanation for both

the identified themes and frequency tables from all the three schedules. As said earlier, all the questions and schedules for the three methods were designed to cover similar areas so that they could cross-validate each other.

The thematic categories were then quantified by converting the qualitative data into quantitative data, for example the challenge of lack of fees or economic challenge was mentioned by almost all the respondents and this was put in the form of percentage. Categorisation and patterning was done manually while SPSS was used to produce the frequency tables. The information obtained from the three methods was as follows;

- Closed questions produced background demographic information such as number of children in schools, distance to schools, animals kept, sold and killed by droughts,
- The open-ended questions provided information on perceptions, challenges, and policies and how nomads desire education to be provided for them. This information further provided both qualitative and quantitative data.

3.6.1 Focus group discussion

In the FGD, discussions were conducted according to topics in which the schedule was designed. These discussions gave detailed information which was easily placed under each of the sections of the FGD schedule in line with the themes of the research questions. The themes were then manually colour coded (e.g. red for policies) and written down into sections covering the areas of interest such as challenges, perceptions and policies. The

narrative responses from the FGD was thus used to give further meaning to the data from the questionnaire and interviews

3.6.2 Semi-structured Interviews

The semi-structure interview was transcribed from mother tongue to English. From the transcriptions emerging themes were identified and grouped together to compose the final analysis and discussions given in chapter four. Here again as in the FGD, questions in the schedule were already sectioned into areas of interest in line with the research questions and research objectives. The transcribed data was thus already put under the exact question from the semi-structured interview that it was meant to answer. It is from these narrative responses that I manually colour coded to identify emerging themes as discussed and analysed in Chapter 4. These themes and those from the interviews were merged and the quantitative data from the questionnaire was used to confirm each them.

3.6.3 Questionnaire

Questionnaire was divided into two parts; those questions with scales were directly fed into the SPSS while those with narrative information were manually coded and the dominant themes identified. The themes were then fed into the SPSS as new variables. In both types of questionnaire, (scaled and non-scaled) frequency tables were generated with percentages. Some of these frequency tables were later merged to produce more detailed tables supported with narrative quotations from the FGD, interview and questionnaire data (see chapter 4).

3.7 Research ethics

According to Punch (2006:276) all social research involves ethical issues because it collects data from people and about people. Ethics is defined as the principled sensitivity to the rights of others and systems relating to what are right and wrong, standards and codes of conduct (Robson, 2002; Cohen et al., 2007). Depending on the nature of any given research, questions asked in distinguishing ethical issues include should the participants be misled or deceived, does this harm them and should they be informed of the study and its consequences. Whatever the nature of study, the latter is becoming increasingly the norm (Robson, 2002) and has been used in my research where I discussed with all the participants as I presented to them the schedules for data collection. Secondly, the school administration and the MOEST were also informed and their guidelines were used in conducting the study.

For my research, I had to get ethical approval from the ethics committee of the University of Birmingham. In the process, I had to explain how the data will be collected, protected, stored and how the participants' rights will be upheld.

In Kenya, for one to carry out research he /she has to submit a research proposal detailing the literature review, research objectives, methods and the sample involved. I had prior knowledge of this condition and prepared my proposal. After presentation to the MOEST, I was granted a written permit and a letter of introduction addressed to the area District Commissioner and copied to the District Education Officer.

Part of my research involved use of students and the school administration who represents the school management board gave me access to their teachers and students. As recommended by Cohen et al (2007) during collection of data, the anonymity and confidentiality of information given by research participants was maintained and guaranteed. In the process of the research, participants were given the freedom to participate or withdraw and in fact two FGD participants went home citing commitments elsewhere as the sessions took longer than planned. I also avoided mixing men and women or interviewing women as these are considered culturally obtrusive in the setting of my study as suggested by Denscombe (2002:177) that 'research must account for the moral and legal climate of the context, time and the boundaries within which the rest of the society operates'.

3.8 Fieldwork Reflections

In Kenya I had to seek pre-approval of the MOEST, taking two weeks time for fieldwork. This required the presenting a research proposal detailing what my research involved and the procedures for conducting it. It was after this that I was granted a research permit.

Unsurprisingly, accessing nomadic parents proved to be the most cumbersome activity in my fieldwork. This is because it coincided with a time when nomads were bracing themselves for drought as the expected rains were patchy. They had moved to areas far from towns and I had to hire a car to reach them at their setting but still could not get the target subsample as they were busy and sparse.

In the field, access to schools was not a problem but it was difficult to get the students as most times they were engaged in their schoolwork, however, with the help of the teachers we managed to slot sometime before lessons.

It was also difficult to get participants for focus group as teachers and education officials were busy with inter schools competitions in sports and games. My FGD activity coincided with another educational activity thus I was not able to get all 25 people I contacted earlier.

Chapter four: Findings and Analysis

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents discussion and analysis of the findings of the data gathered from the field through the three main data collecting instruments; questionnaire, focus group discussion and semi-structured interviews. In the process of analyses, the findings are grouped into themes emerging from the responses given by the sample; the nomadic students, nomadic parents and education officials, head-teachers and teachers. The results are discussed in relation to the literature review, highlighting areas of convergences and divergences.

4.1 Economic issues

As discussed in the literature, most arid and semi-arid lands in Kenya have poor soils and low, unreliable rainfall making them agriculturally poor. The most appropriate economic activity viable in the region is livestock rearing. Due to these conditions nomads have adopted a mobile lifestyle to offset the need for water and pasture

Frequent droughts coupled with their mono-economic activity based on livestock keeping have rendered nomads vulnerable, triggering high malnutrition necessitating their reliance on every relief food distribution.

It is against this background that most of the respondents who participated in this study mentioned financial difficulties such as lack of school fees and access to basic needs as factors that prevent many nomadic students from pursuing education. As shown in table 4.0, 94% of the students stated lack of school fees as the main factor inhibiting accessing to education for nomadic children.

Table 4.0 Challenges nomadic students face

Challenges	% mentioned
Lack of fees	94
Inadequate basic needs	66
Lack of parental care	58
Lack of transport	40
Negative attitude	40
Lack of text books	28

N=50

Similarly, 66% (see table 4.0) of the students believe that lack of basic needs such as food, clothes and shelter are also obstacles to educational access for nomads as some students have put it;

“Poor feeding especially in primary schools and inadequate basic needs such as clothes, pens and a permanent home to stay... Uniforms ... lack of washing soaps ... Lack of water ...”

It is due to the above economic setting that parents expect the government to provide all the basic necessities for their children such as uniform as shown below;

“...secondly since we are mobile, the government should provide the children with all the basic needs and uniforms”.

Nomads say they cannot afford to keep their families at the permanent villages as this requires extra costs different from that of the nomadic family and they report not to be able to sustain the divided expenses as one parent explains;

“Because we look after animals for our livelihood and our children are involved in the same, it is expensive to stay in permanent villages since we don’t have a continuous flow of income as do business people and workers.”

The information from the field also illustrates under the section on ‘challenges nomadic students face’, that they “*lack fees and other basic requirements such as washing and bathing soaps*”, coupled with high poverty incidence among nomads, lack of basic needs such as food at homes is severally mentioned.

As one student writes;

“.....getting basic needs like food, writing materials and water [is a problem].”

As another student describes it further;

“I came to school after drought has cleared our animals so I was lonely in a boarding school without any assistance from anybody ...even getting school uniform was a problem.”

Most of the stakeholders for this study say nomadic parents are very poor and cannot afford to pay school fees, basic necessities and up keep for the families if they settle at permanent villages. Table 4.1 which brings together the background information of the parents

interviewed, illustrates that majority of them lost more animals through droughts than they sold.

Table 4.1 Background information from the interviews

Parent	No. of children	No. in of children schools	Distance to schools	No. of animals		
				Kept	Killed by drought	Sold
1	10	0	40 km	100 goats, 20 camels	30 goats, 7 camels	7 goats, 1 camel
2	12	5	20 km	30 goats, 5 cows	100 goats, 3 cows	10 goats
3	16	3	40km	300 goats, 7 cows and 20 camels	100 goats, 1 cow and 6 camels	30 goats
4	10	7	11km	70 goats	15 cows	17 goats
5	8	5	20km	80 goats	150 goats, 30 cows	20 goats
6	10	7	40km	60 goats, 40 cows and 30 camels	20 cows	10 cows, 3 goats

For example, one parent lost 150 goats through droughts and diseases but sold only 20 goats. It seems that nomads are either very ‘naive’ or as said in some responses by students, keep animals for prestige. However, it is also worth noting that there are no livestock related industries to create market for these animals in the whole of the North Eastern province. The absence of markets for the animals has been mentioned as one of the many challenges affecting educational access for nomadic students as one student states;

“... sometimes there is lack of market for the animals [so no money for school fees].”

Another student adds;

“Animals we keep are not taken to the market because of drought and as such I spent a whole week (sometimes up to a month) at home after schools opened.”

The FGD participants made the following statement concerning the situation of nomads;

“Nomads are poor mainly because of drought, poor markets and poor livestock management.”

It is evident from the above interrelating discussions that whilst nomads may wish to participate in education, poverty is an issue of concern.

4.2 Educational policies

According to the FGD participants, there is lack of policy framework on nomadic education⁶; current ones either are at piloting stage or not set up. There is no suitable or relevant curriculum for nomads in practice and the current curriculum is incompatible with nomadic lifestyle. Moreover, the curriculum being piloted is the one designed for formal schools which is already deemed ‘loaded’ for the pupils from the permanent villages because of the many subjects and wide syllabus.

The local policy of posting teachers due to disciplinary related issues to nomadic areas leads to poor performance and high dropout rates as the FGD participants believe that;

“The posting of personnel (teachers) on disciplinary grounds to nomadic areas has had negative impact”.

⁶ Currently there is a draft nomadic education policy framework in Kenya but a close look at this document shows overtones of the rigidity and formality already attributed to formal education while the formulation of this policy document seems to exclude nomadic people.

These teachers are seen by nomads to be corrupting the morals of the children; reinforcing the negative perception of education, therefore nomads avoid taking their children to such schools.

The education officials, head teachers and teachers criticised the government policy of enrolment-based establishment (EBE). They say the policy on teacher-pupil ratio of 1:50 that is currently in practice is disadvantageous to nomads. In the nomadic areas schools are geographically far from each other and class enrolments are low. For example, one could find a school with 50 children spread over three classes, therefore according to the above policy such a school is officially entitled to only one teacher⁷.

There is a general complaint that schools in the nomadic remote areas are understaffed. The government policy of freezing teacher employment, only replacing those who retire or die while the enrolments increase due to FPE are indeed contradictory issues as one parent elucidates;

“Even in the concept of free primary education, the government does not employ teachers, replacing only those who die and retire while school enrolment has sharply increased. The government seems to be against the FPE programme. Others have dropped out of school because of lack of teachers. Here, we have been forced to hire teachers and the government is saying ‘free education.’”

Nomads have a unique lifestyle that requires unique education. There is a lack of trained personnel to handle nomadic education. The current teachers and education officials are

⁷ According to the Education Act of 1968, revised in 1980, a school is defined as a place where there are at least 10 children learning, meaning therefore that the current policy contradicts the act.

trained to handle formal schools. Some parents interviewed believe that untrained teachers should be employed to teach the nomadic schools because of understaffing and high transfers, blaming the government for lack of teaching staff in the nomadic areas. As one parent says;

“In the olden days, the government used to employ untrained teachers, I think the same procedure should be followed to help the situation and in the process train them... Further, he adds “the government is opening more schools instead of strengthening the existing ones and transfers teachers from rural areas which are not fair.”

Another parent adds;

“The government should provide teachers even if it means recruiting untrained teachers. Some private schools are known to use untrained teachers and yet they perform well in national examinations” and he asks “why not at public schools?”

During my fieldwork I had some informal discussions with an Education Officer (EO) who blames the locals for not taking up teaching as a profession and disowning their roots. The EO said, “out of the 21 teachers we recruited recently only three are locals” and he adds “it seems the local elites are running away from their roots which means there are no role models in the villages.” For them, he argues, “education is an avenue to escape out of the village; it is not like that in other places.” Asked who was a role model for those elites during their school days, the EO said, “There were other motivating factors such as immediate employment.”

However, in response to the EO’s statement one parent stated,

“The government has raised the entry grade for teaching colleges and because of poor facilities, our area performs poorly so very few do attain the required grades and the few who attain the grades or better go for other jobs or colleges.”

He adds;

“...all the regions have different problems and disparities, as I said earlier our schools are poorly equipped. It seems that the government is marginalizing us further.”

The current policy in teaching is to use the language of the catchment area of the schools but mostly English and Swahili are dominant, however, nomadic parents believe that using mother tongue, as the language of instruction will make their children literate. They say literacy does not mean only learning to read and write in English and Swahili, as one parent describes;

“It will be good to teach using mother tongue because teaching one how to read and write in their mother tongue helps them to be literate. There are medical doctors who can only read and write in their mother tongue, so literacy does not mean only learning other languages. In Somalia, there was a crash programme where the whole population had to be taught Somali language, so we need mobile schools which teach in the language of the nomadic families.”

Evidence from the fieldwork illustrates some local policies like recruiting untrained teachers to handle early childhood education and primary schools. As one parent tells us in the interview that;

“Others have dropped out of school because of lack of teachers. Here, we have been forced to hire teachers, and yet the government is saying ‘free’ education.”

Most nomadic parents are aware of some policies such as FPE, boarding schools and SFP while others are uninformed. When asked about the programmes, one parent stated;

“I am aware of free primary education which excludes Early Childhood Education and care (ECD).”

Moreover, he adds;

“...people are poor and children go to schools sometimes while hungry so school feeding programme has been very helpful in solving such a problem.”

The participants of this study seem to agree that the current policies of formal education have failed to address the needs of nomadic communities and inference can be made that they require a different system altogether.

4.3 Perceptions

The stakeholders in this study have used words like ‘poor attitude of parents to education’ and ‘ignorance’ to describe the perception of nomads to education. When the FGD participants were asked what they thought the perception of nomads to education was, it emerged that they were perceived to view education as something which is;

“Irrelevant to their lifestyle for it distances children from their culture and many who have gone to schools no more like herding livestock.”

Some other parents are said to believe that schools are centres of bad behaviour as one student puts it;

“Some parents fear that their culture and religion might be eroded if they took their children to schools.”

This was echoed by another student;

“Others insist not to take their girls to school as a way to conserve their culture.”

Table 4.2 Challenges nomadic children face

Reason	% mentioned
Ignorance and attitude of parents	94
Child labour	74
Lack of finances; fees and basic needs	66
Absence of schools and government help	36
Early marriages	8

N=50

In addition, most participants in the study attribute parental ignorance as a major issue in the educating of nomadic children as illustrated in table 4.2 and the quotations below from the questionnaire;

“Nomadic children are discouraged by their parents who prefer the children to look after the animals... Do not understand the importance of education and keep their children at homes... Parents beat their children psychologically.”

Other students add;

“Ignorance of parents about education and they take animals as their sole satisfier.”

“Parents do not understand the importance of education and value animals more”

“Parents have doubt about the importance of education, since nomadic life is the only way of their life”

Some parents believe that education reduces their labour and livestock resources. Labour is lost when students go to learn and parents are aware this comes with expenses which they have to bear by selling their animals.

Nomads attribute education with securing a better life securing and jobs as one parent explains below;

“It was on a Thursday when Kenya attained its independence and since that time schools were there and the products are the ones who are enjoying good jobs and of course better life. People, therefore go to learn in order to secure jobs to earn a living. I can see the difference between those who went to schools and the others. All the current leaders have gone through schools; the whole of our life seems to be circulating around education. The president, doctors, teachers etc cannot be what they are if they were not educated.”

A student also tells us that;

“Parents have negative attitude to education because they see many students in the villages that completed schools without jobs.”

Parents are aware of the unemployment crisis and recession that is currently rocking the world as one parent states below;

“I would suggest those in schools to be reduced (withdrawn) since there is lack of jobs in Africa, Asia and even Europe according to BBC, Somali service.”

We learn from the above parent that nomads use radios and that the same can be used to extend learning programmes, as is suggested by the FGD data and the literature review.

The participants in the FGD regard nomadic lifestyle like any other lifestyle with its merits and demerits describing them as people in normal natural lifestyle, hardworking, impatient towards the process of education, who view education as a waste of time and resources and are sometimes violent due to conflict over scarce resources.

4.4 Mobility of nomads and transport

Nomads are very mobile people and direct a lot of their time, energy and resources towards ensuring their survival and that of their animals at the expense of education. Even learning at the Koran schools is usually closed when droughts prolong, consequently students take longer to graduate.

The data from the questionnaire indicates that 40% of the respondents mentioned transport as an obstacle to accessing education as shown in tables 4.0 and 4.1. The distance of schools from nomadic homes and vice versa is usually far, together with the poor transport network systems; this contributes to poor attendance and subsequently poor curriculum coverage

resulting in poor performance among nomadic students. In the long run, this leads to high dropout rate and school avoidance by nomadic children.

Table 4.1 shows the distance some nomads were to the nearest school during my fieldwork but these distance varies with the availability of water and grass for the animals. In such situations nomadic students suffer a lot because of the long distances between schools and their homes. Secondly, as mentioned by most of the participants in the study, there is a poor transport network in these areas as one student tells us;

“Where to spend school holidays also affects my education; as animals migrate from one place to another making me to travel long distances to find where the old man went with the animals.”

Another student adds;

“During school holidays it is difficult to carry books all the way to and from 72 km ...making me to perform poorly in school work” adding “....I might foot long distances to reach the nomadic homes while hungry.”

After schools close for vacations, students have problems of where to stay and how to survive. They usually keep track of the shifting patterns of the nomadic families and once schools close they go with any other nomad who comes from the same area as their family. The following are examples of quotations from what some students wrote in response to the questions concerning difficulties in accessing education;

“Sometimes the family migrates from the original place of settlement I knew and I get lost from the direction (of home).”

“... sometimes the family is far from the town; migrating from one place to another, looking after their animals and it might take long for me to reach the school.”

“Transportation from our nomadic homes to school is a menace.”

“When schools close no transport is available.”

“I did not have place to stay after schools close and I have to walk [long] to find where the nomadic family has shifted to”.

“Being away from parental care since school is far from our nomadic home.”

When some parents were asked, if the situation is as described in accessing education for their children, how they want them to learn, a parent said;

“... if we get mobile schools which can shift up and down with us then our children plus the parents can learn something” and he continues “we have a plan of employing a mature person to look after the animals so that we can send our children to schools but that might not be as good as the mobile schools. If mobile teachers can move with us, then children would learn as they do in the Koran schools. In the Koran schools those who look after animals learn during the nights and early in the mornings.”

The FGD data suggest the value of two way integration at the formal and Koran schools as shown by the following quotation;

“Integration – schools should provide both secular and religious instruction and the Koran schools should also provide basic literacy and numeracy.”

And in line with the above a parent adds;

“The government should help us as it does for those at permanent villages by providing school feeding, mobile teachers and communication”, and he continues, “If there will be no mobile teachers to move with us, as do the Koran teachers, then it is not possible for our children to learn.”

The mobility of nomads in combination with poor transport network are two issues that hinder educational access for nomadic children. Students waste a lot of time between school and their nomadic families affecting their academic and physical wellbeing.

4.5 Lack of schools and boarding facilities

Most of the stakeholders who participated in the study feel that schools are poorly equipped, few and sparsely located. When students were asked what they thought keeps nomadic children away from schools they said things like;

“Lack of proper schools for the nomadic children within the nomadic setting and boarding schools in the rural areas are not well developed.”

Table 4.3 How nomadic children can be educated

Method	% mentioned
Educate parents	72
Policy changes	64
more schools with boarding facilities	64
Mobile schools and teachers	38

N=50

In table 4.3, when students were asked how nomads can be educated 64 % of them said the provision of more schools with properly equipped boarding facilities will help nomads educate their children;

“Most children have the fear of not getting where to stay especially during primary schooling where boarding schools are very few.”

“Scarcity of boarding primary schools; some people do not have relatives in towns so they cannot bring their children to schools.”

Another student adds;

“Some are too far to access education since there are no schools in the interior nomadic areas”

“Lack of schools in the rural area and near our homes.”

As discussed in the literature review, boarding schools are performing poorly in serving the nomadic children. Fieldwork illustrates that the physical structures are in bad shape and other services are poor making their habitation unfavourable. In some circumstances others have leaking roofs, fragile walls and poor sanitation. All these render the boarding facilities almost ineffective as homes for pupils.

The diet in boarding schools is very poor, more so for nomadic children who are used to milk and meat rather than maize and beans as provided at the boarding schools. Further, there is insecurity in these schools as young children are bullied by the bigger ones plus

environmental loneliness which all contribute to the alienation of the nomadic child.

However, some parents had the following to say on boarding schools;

“The other issue is absence of boarding schools and the settled relatives are poor and cannot host more than their family.”

“You will find some parents with all their children looking after animals but am sure if more boarding schools are built, they will bring some of them to school.”

“We lack boarding schools and since most of the people are nomads; they cannot just be in two places; with their children and the animals in the bushes.”

Table 4.4 Ways students overcame the challenges

Way used	% mentioned
Personal initiatives	80
Parents and relatives help	68
Bursaries	58
Boarding schools	14

N=50

However, when the students were asked how they overcame challenges affecting them, they said through bursaries, scholarships and personal initiatives and a few mentioned boarding schools as shown in table 4.4 as supported by one student who tells us that;

“In order to overcome school fees problems I had to do some labour work during school holidays. I also request my family members to contribute some money so that I can pursue my education.”

Another student adds;

“I overcame the problem of school fees by requesting for assistance from relatives and applying for bursaries from CDF [constituency development fund] and NGOs.”

On the issue of how students overcame transport problems one student tells us;

“... usually I come to town days before schools open for I do not know the next time a vehicle will come. Sometimes I decide not to go home [during vacations] and instead stay with relatives in town.”

Parents suggest boarding schools should be established near their grazing zones if they are to benefit from FPE as it is encouraged by the government as one parent puts it;

“Children walk [long distances] to and from school every day, We really require a boarding school since the government is saying children should be brought to schools and majority of us are nomads, there is need for boarding schools near our grazing zones.”

From the above discussions it can be seen that in the nomadic areas school are poorly equipped, very far apart and are few. The boarding schools that exist are described as inhabitable and nomadic children either have dropped out or are not willing to stay at the dormitories.

4.6 Child labour

There are national and international laws prohibiting child labour such as the Children's Act of 2001 in Kenya but generally implementation is poor and worse among nomads because either they are out of reach or the implementing institutions are weak.

Nomadic parents view the concept of child labour as part of their culture; they say children are being prepared to become the herders of tomorrow as one parent says;

“Children do what they can in helping their parents who are busy providing food and other basic needs. Further, this prepares children for their roles as they grow into adulthood.”

The data from the student questionnaire contained a question on what students do during school vacations and how often as has been summarised in table 4.5 and explained below.

Most nomadic children are engaged in domestic activities for example, as shown in table 4.5 66% of the students were involved in herding every day, several days in week or once a week. The following quotation from one student also supports these figures;

“Most of the children are used as labourers at homes for example looking after animals.”

“Most nomadic children are looking after animals hence do not have chance to go to schools.”

Table 4.5 Students' engagement during vacations

Activity	How often in %			
	Everyday	Several in week	Once a week	Never
Looking after animals	6	34	26	34
Fetching firewood /water	8	12	20	60
Looking after babies / cooking food	10	4	8	78
Revising books	26	32	4	38

Adds another student that;

“Some children are working for other nomads to get money.”

One parent tells us why nomadic children are not in schools;

“Nomads cannot afford to bring all their children to school because animals need to be looked after and these children are source of labour.”

One student describes;

“Help the parents to get daily bread by working as maids for neighbours and fetching firewood to sell.”

“No enough time for your studies since one is always after cattle helping parents.”

The FDG data also supports the above as stated below;

“Child labour in the form of herding animals or getting employed as house helps at villages causes high drop out from schools or non attendance.”

Information from table 4.5 further illustrates that 40% of the students are involved in fetching water and firewood while only 22% of the same respondents said they look after babies or cook food. This lower participation of nomadic students in the above activities is attributable to the fact that most of the respondents were boys and that in the nomadic social set up, they are rarely involved in such activities. Additionally, students are usually seen by the nomads as incapable of fetching water from long distances, as they could easily get lost from home but as for the firewood, it is usually collected near the homesteads.

The involvement of students in domestic activities seems to hinder them from revising schoolwork as only 26% revised on a daily basis while 38% never revised schoolwork during the school vacation. In addition, lack of transport, proper study environments and texts books are also mentioned while others face lack of parental care and courage in pursuance of their education.

4.7 Conclusion

The challenges affecting nomads in accessing education are diverse and intertwined with policies, culture and socio-economic lifestyle. However, the main issues challenging nomads in accessing formal education seem to be circulating around policies, economy and perceptions. This is because other issues such as transport and child labour can be envisaged as related to economy or perception.

Nomads are seen as people who are engaged in a lifestyle that is incompatible with modern norms, and it is clear from the onset that the planning and creation of formal education in Kenya is premised on a western culture which excludes nomads.

Chapter five: Summary and Recommendations

5.0 Introduction

This final chapter presents summary, recommendations and suggests way forward for future research. The implementations of these recommendations are expected to improve the access to education for nomadic communities of Wajir, Kenya and by extension all other nomadic communities with similar characteristics. Most recommendations are based on the inference from the fieldwork and literature combined with my experiences.

5.1 Summary

Despite lots of efforts expended and the wide acceptance of the role of education in developing the social, political and economic well being of people, many nomadic children in Wajir are still out of schools. The study shows there is under participation by all in the whole region and the nomadic children remain the most disadvantaged.

The research undertaken in this study is on the education for nomads in the context of the actualization of EFA in the nomadic district of Wajir, Kenya. The main aims of the research were: to establish the challenges of linking nomads and formal education; investigate the perceptions of stakeholders to nomadic education; find out the policies targeted at nomads and their implementation in the field, and explore the preferences of how nomads want education to be provided. As captured in the literature and the primary data, of concern are economic, social, and cultural and policy issues among others.

Under Economic issue the main concern mentioned is lack of school fees and other basic needs as factors inhibiting nomads from accessing formal education. Additionally, lack of livestock markets, high unemployment and frequent droughts contribute to wide spread poverty that denies them participation in education.

The study reveals that nomads depend on their children for labour and schooling is seen to reduce this important socio-economic activity and is said to alienate children from their culture. The study also found out that most parents are illiterate and do not understand the importance of education, attaching more importance to animal rearing than education.

Culturally nomads are usually very mobile as a way of survival and transport network is very poor. This lack of transport combined with their high mobility makes school attendance for most nomadic children irregular or may lead to high dropouts and non-attendance.

Existing policies are unfavourable for nomads as most have been designed for settled people. The study reveals that the policies of SFP, FPE and bursaries have had negligible effect in increasing educational access for nomadic communities. Schools are far from nomads and the few boarding schools that exist are poorly equipped to handle nomadic children; the curriculum, food and the general environment all add up to excluding nomadic children from schools. These findings of the study lead us to the section on the recommendations.

5.2 Recommendations

Any development geared towards the education improvement for nomadic communities needs to go beyond paper work and putting up physical structures. It should involve implementing responsive programmes addressing the needs of these mobile ‘consumers’. Some of the concerns and considerations worth looking into are discussed below in the form of recommendations. The recommendations are grouped into proposals for consideration at different levels – Ministry of Education, at the nomadic setting, outside formal schools and non-educational issues. They are a combination of conclusions drawn from pre-existing work, new evidence from this thesis, and appropriate argumentation.

5.2 Ministry of education level

5.2.1 Policies

In Kenya, basic education is free and compulsory for all children though not legislated, it is supported by political will from the current government. The existing regulations on child rights seem to be inadequate as they lack proper implementation, and fieldwork shows the absence of consequences for the defaulters of compulsory education. Fieldwork data suggests that there is need for government to implement FPE by enforcing existing legislations for compulsory education such as those provided for by the Children’s Act.

In order to solve this problem it is suggested that the government policies need to be redrawn to reflect deliberate, affirmative and immediate actions for nomadic children. Currently nomads are assumed to be benefiting from the existing policies while policy implementation structures in the field seem not to be explicit about how nomads can benefit.

The few policies on nomadic education are interlaced within those meant for the settled communities and are put in the future tense. For example the KESSP document of MOEST puts it ‘mobile schools will continue to be piloted in ASALs’. The structures in the field show similar future plans for nomads to get education. Most policies are top-down in nature where the people at the ‘grassroots’ are not involved at all. It emerged from the field that some nomads are not aware of FPE with its free boarding facilities but if they had they would have used the chance. For example at the national level policy-making is through sector wide approach (SWAP) where various government Ministries are involved. Perplexingly, the grassroots and nomads are not contacted when putting up a school to serve them.

In Kenya, policies are targeting what is considered important such as access and retention at schools without adequate consideration for the diversity in lifestyle and the socio-economic patterns of the expected consumers of education. Thus, it is critical for any policy and its practical implementation targeting nomads to have a dimension to determine what actually matters for them. The following examples are areas of importance for nomads to access education.

5.2.1.1 Equipped Boarding Schools

Boarding schools have existed for a long time, but are currently not maximally used, according to this study. The existing examples have reportedly poor diet, beddings and housing. Fieldwork illustrates that nomadic parents avoid taking their children to boarding schools as the food and environment are all said to be alienating them. As a result, some

children have run away from such schools. In order to enhance access and participation for nomadic communities through boarding facilities the following improvements are suggested:

- Training caretakers at boarding schools so that they can provide a friendly environment for the nomadic children while at the same time improving their interpersonal skills;
- The diet needs to include food that nomadic children are used to such as milk and meat. Additionally the sanitation, availability of water and beddings need to be improved to attract more children;
- Arrange parental visits within the course of learning to reduce loneliness for the nomadic children mentioned by field respondents.
- Provide transport to and from the nomadic homes to schools.

5.2.1.2 Teacher training

This study has found that the teacher training system and general school orientation are regarded by many as nomadic unfriendly. In order to change the situation, a curriculum that is in line with the needs of nomadic people is proposed which should also affect how teachers are trained. This should be crafted with the consultation of the nomads and not entrusted merely to the ‘experts’ alone. Field Education officers and teachers handling nomadic education would need to be retrained for the new curriculum as well as on the nomadic culture to enhance their interaction.

Teaching and learning materials also need to be developed with topics and activities that are relevant to the nomadic lifestyle, unlike the current scenario where students are usually taught and examined on issues foreign to their locality. A good example is coffee farming, though such a crop is not grown in ASAL areas.

5.2.1.3 Auxiliary learning activities

At the formal schools and outside, supportive learning environments are needed for nomadic students. As discussed in the literature review and reported in the new data, the existing learning environments are not nomadic friendly. To improve the learning environments, nomadic children would require support both in academic and non-academic issues.

The proposed academic support activities include providing accelerated learning for nomads who join formal schools at an old age through remedial and radio programmes. Provision of alternative education such as carpentry, tailoring and masonry courses is suggested for those who drop out and are not able to make it to the next level of education as this is expected to help them earn a living or continue with higher technical education.

5.3 Nomadic setting

5.3.1 Mobile schools

Mobile schools are also an alternative for enhancing education among the pastoralist communities. Mobile schools have been tried out earlier in Wajir by a local NGO but did

not take off. Fieldwork shows it is unlikely to take off and some basic changes are suggested to help the situation.

5.3.1.1 Integration into the Koran schools

Nomads already have a type of learning system; the Koran schools. Mobile schools cannot just start from nothing so they could be ‘planted’ in Koran schools, as was suggested in the interviews. These schools need to be tailored to the lifestyle of the nomads in all their functions. It is suggested for learning to take place in the nomadic setting mobile schools need to adopt a learning system similar to the Koran schools while fulfilling the national goals of education. This can be done by integrating the new curriculum designed (see 5.3.1.2). The integration is likely to be welcomed by nomads if it will not interfere with the Koran school. Fieldwork suggests a formal curriculum may possibly also work if the numbers of subjects are reduced.

By integration I do not imply teaching other subjects and Koran at the same time because this is regarded as a threat to the Koranic School. Secular subjects need to be taught on Thursdays and Fridays as children are free from Koran lessons and other times arranged with the nomadic parents. In the Koranic schools students learn at their own pace through flexible learning times. Assessments need to be based on the ability of the child to master concepts in given subject rather than written examinations like in the formal schools.

5.3.1.2 Curriculum

As mentioned earlier mobile schools have been tried and continue to be tried, however fieldwork attributes their slow growth to the use of formal curriculum. It is natural in learning that people relate to and enjoy when what is being learnt has a bearing in their life. On this basis therefore, the formal curriculum seem to be providing some mismatches to what nomads really need in their setting.

Nomads are used to informal and non-formal ways of learning to teach indigenous knowledge; therefore the proposed curriculum should involve non-formal methods. For example poetry and oral tales are used by nomads for teaching as section of one story on safety for children goes;

‘My children, do not climb trees during the night for you will become a bird and fly away never to be found again’.

Here, a nonformal curriculum is suggested where the content, learning methods, procedures and teaching language all relate to nomads in terms of applicability to their daily life such as learning about animal diseases and herbal medicine. Fieldwork for this study suggests use of mother tongue in teaching and learning before learning foreign languages at mobile schools. Koranic schools are known to use cheap and locally available learning materials so the new curriculum should be tailored to use similar materials.

The aim of the nonformal curriculum is to reduce the rigidities of formal education so that learning takes place at appropriate and ‘sympathetic’ seasons and times for the nomads. These periods and times should be planned with help of the nomadic parents.

5.3.1.3 Adult education

According to the data from the field, nomadic parents are regarded as the ones who encourage or decide whether to educate their children or not. The study also found that negative attitude of parents to education is a major reason why nomadic children do not access education as parents prefer herding to education.

For many participants in this study, educating nomadic parents on the importance of education and child rights will help in reversing this trend. This can be done through adult literacy programmes which are already in practice at some permanent villages but rarely in the nomadic setting. In the same vein, there is need to roll out adult education to nomadic communities as most of the respondents argued that educating the nomadic parents will help them realize the importance of education and in turn change their perception and attitude to education. Above all, educating parents is expected to project positively on their living standards through improved management of their affairs such as livestock rearing.

Additionally, awareness creation through visiting and talking to nomadic families periodically by the area education officers and local leaders is suggested as fieldwork points to a lack of link between nomads and their surroundings.

5.4 Outside the formal schools

5.4.1 Voucher system

Most nomadic children are said to be out of schools because of lack of school fees. In order to solve this challenge a voucher system for improving access to education could be used. A voucher is system of financing education where beneficiaries are given tickets to education institutions. Therefore, since most nomads either do not access education or drop out of schools at the primary level due to lack of finance, vouchers would be expected to boost learning and provide autonomy to choose where and what to pursue. For example vouchers could be used at technical colleges where nomads can study subjects such as carpentry, tailoring, hairdressing and masonry, thus help the realization of supportive activities discussed earlier.

5.4.2 Radio and distance education

Nomads use radios in their nomadic lifestyle to keep abreast with the world news and other programmes which are aired in local languages. Fieldwork suggests that these programmes are useful for extending educational programmes to the nomadic teacher as well as the general public.

In order to utilize this opportunity, radio stations should allocate special times and activities targeting nomadic communities. Some of the radio programmes could be in line with reading materials specially designed for the nomadic teachers so that they advance their knowledge as they continue teaching the nomadic children. The radio programmes could also target actual methodology for instruction in nomadic settings. Additionally, they could

be used to extend health programmes, marketing of animals and early warning news on droughts; potentially benefiting the nomads. At the time of this study, a community radio station was coming up in Wajir and it could serve this purpose well.

5.5 Non-educational recommendations

5.5.1 Nomadic infrastructure

Education cannot stand-alone in order to develop, since it is involved in the shaping, moulding and educating of human beings. It cannot develop without a supportive infrastructure such as proper communication, transport, health, shelter and clean water. Similarly, a poorly fed child is very unlikely to learn as required, but as described in the literature review and data analysis, many nomadic children lack basic needs.

Therefore, in order to improve education access and participation among the nomadic communities, the basic infrastructure needs to be developed. Here, infrastructure includes among other issues marketing animals, veterinary services and providing grazing ranges where animal movement is reduced. These are to help nomads to make better use of their animals which are mostly lost through droughts and diseases.

As seen from the data as well as the literature, nomads move long distance in search of water. Providing nomads with such an important commodity will not only help them improve their life but also bring them closer to embracing education. Most of the time, effort and labour used in search of water will be reduced and children are likely to be sent to school instead.

5.5.2 Labour offsets

It is not uncommon in the nomadic setting for each family to bear its own burden of herding their animals. For example, my fieldwork experience has shown that at nomadic villages and water points, there are several parents with ten to twenty goats, yet each herd of goats is looked after by a child or two. Merging animals has been suggested as a way of releasing children from domestic labour to schools. Other nomads have hired adults to look after their animals and in that way managed to educate their children as one parent tells us in the interview, “all my children except the very young ones are in schools and my animals are looked after by workers whom I supervise”. Building on these, the government and others involved in nomadic education need to reward and encourage nomadic parents who bring their children to schools by replacing the labour lost. This could be done by facilitating employment of adults to herd animals and targeting their children for bursaries.

5.5.3 Educational camps

Nomads usually adopt a group settlement for the purpose of Koran schools. This norm of settling together is an opportunity that can be exploited for the formation of educational camps.

The government with the help of nomads should establish two to three camps. These should be established near or along the seasonal migration routes of the nomadic communities so that during the rainy seasons they are found around a certain camp (rainy camp) while during

the dry seasons they are at another camp (dry season camp) and a third one for the extreme seasons such as when the drought persists longer than anticipated (emergency camp).

At these camps the government and non-governmental organization should provide mobile schools and other auxiliary social amenities such as water and health. Care should be taken so that these camps do not develop into new settlements as these will ruin the grazing lands for nomads. The camps should first be piloted with a section of the community so as to see its viability after which more camps could be rolled out.

5.6 Way forward for future research

The areas discussed above will all require extensive research in order to reap maximum benefits from them. For example, the mobile schools which are currently at piloting stage need to be strengthened through research. The research should address among other issues the most appropriate subjects, topics and methodologies for providing education in a nomadic setting.

Past experiences with mobile schools using formal curriculum seem not to make significant impact and given that the current ones are on the same track no much difference is expected for nomadic education. This is attributable to the mismatch of the rigid orientations of formal education and the mobile nature of nomads.

For the research on nomadic education to be effective, there is need for the MOEST establish a department devoted to nomadic education. This department should be concerned

with research, production of learning materials and all other issues on nomadic education. In fact, most efforts after research should be expended towards implementing nomadic education through non-formal avenues as formal ones seem to prove impractical for nomads.

5.7 Conclusions

The above recommendations are all worth implementing for nomads to be educated and be at par with other peoples of the country. However, of priority are the recommendations to be implemented in the nomadic setting. Additionally, the non-educational recommendations should be implemented for the mitigation of the possible effects of the educational programmes on nomadic lifestyle. These are important issues for nomads and worthy of greater attention than heretofore.

References

Achoka, J., Odebero, S., Maiyo, J. and Mualuko, N. (2007) Access to basic education in Kenya: inherent concerns. *Education Research and Review*, 2 (10): 275-284.

Alhaji, A. A (December 21, 2001) *Nomadic Education in Nigeria: Strategic direction for improving education access for nomads, pastoralists and migrants. A report on the analysis of study conducted on national education bodies and livestock department.* www.google.com [Accessed on 20/02/2010].

Alwy, A. and Schech, S. (2004) Ethnic inequalities in education in Kenya. *International Education Journal*, 5 (2): 266-274.

Best, J. and Kahn, J. (1986) *Research in Education*. 5th ed. London: Prentice Hall International.

Bryman, A. (2008) *Social Research Methods*. 3rd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bunyi, G.W. (2006) *Real options for literacy and practice in Kenya*. Paper commissioned for the EFA Global Monitoring Report, literacy for life. Available from www.google.com [Accessed on 25/02/2009].

Carr-Hill, R. and Peart, E. (2005) *The Education of Nomadic Peoples in East Africa; Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. Review of relevant literature.* Paris: UNESCO-IIEP.

Carr-Hill, R. with Eshete, A., Sedel, C. and Souza, A (2005) *The Education of Nomadic Peoples in East Africa; Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda*, Synthesis Report an IIEP study commissioned by the African Development Bank (ADB) in partnership with UNICEF and UNESCO available from www.google.com [Accessed on 06/10/2008]

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2007) *Research Methods in Education.* 6th ed. London: Routledge.

Creswell, J. and Clark, V. (2007) *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Daily Nation News Paper (11th April, 2009) *Religious leaders call for better say in the management of bursaries and other devolved funds in Kenya.* Nairobi: Nation Media Group.

De Vaus, D. (2001) *Research design in Social Research.* London: SAGE Publications.

Denscombe, M. (2002) *Ground Rules for Ground Research, A 10 point guide for Social Researchers.* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Dodds, T. and Edirisingha, P. (2000) 'organisational delivery structure.' In: Yates C. and Bradley J. (eds.) *Basic education at a distance, world review of distance education and open learning: volume 2*. London and New York: The commonwealth of learning.

Dyer, C. (2006) 'Introduction: Education for Nomadic Peoples: an urgent challenge.' In: Dyer, C. (ed.) *The Education of Nomadic Peoples Current Issues, future prospects*. New York and Oxford: Berghahn Books,

Elimu Yetu Coalition (2007) *The Status of Education Access in Kenya during the global week of action campaign for education*. Available at www.education.nairobiunesco.org. [Accessed on 20/01/2009].

Ezeomah, C. (2006) 'Government Policy on Education for Nomadic Pastoralists and Migrant Fishermen: The Nigerian Experience'. In: *MOEK/UNICEF, Forum on Flexible Education. Reaching Nomadic Populations*, Garissa, Kenya, 20-23 June 2006. Summary Report, Kenya Ministry of Education, UNICEF, Commonwealth of Learning and Commonwealth Secretariat, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada.

Available from http://www.col.org/SiteCollectionDocuments/NomadicReport_A4_web.pdf [Accessed on 20 /01/2010].

Gatsha, G. (2006) 'Taking Basic Education to Nomadic and Marginalised Communities.' In: *MOEK/UNICEF, Forum on Flexible Education. Reaching Nomadic Populations*, Garissa, Kenya, 20-23 June 2006. Summary Report, Kenya Ministry of Education,

UNICEF, Commonwealth of Learning and Commonwealth Secretariat, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada.

Available from http://www.col.org/SiteCollectionDocuments/NomadicReport_A4_web.pdf
[Accessed on 20 /01 /2010].

Goldsmith, P. (2003) *Perception of nomads in Kenya. Policy Reform Initiative sponsored by Reconcile-International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED), joint project for the Reinforcement of Pastoral Civil Society in East Africa.* Kenya Country Study and Regional Synthesis. Available from www.google.com [Accessed on 12/01/2009].

Gorard, S. and Taylor, C. (2004) *Combining Methods in Educational and Social Research.* Berkshire: Open University Press.

Institute of Policy Research and Analysis. (2002). Public Policy and Pastoral Development. *Policy Brief*, 8(3): 1-4. Nairobi: IPRA.

Ismail A. (2002). *Challenges and opportunities to nomadic education. Paper presented at Abuja conference on nomadic education 16th - 19th January 2002.* Available from www.google.com [Accessed on 28/10/2008].

Johnson, B., Onwuegbuzie, J. and Turner, L. (2007) Towards a definition of Mixed Methods, Research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1 (2): 112-133.

Kakonge, E. (2006) 'Incorporating Nomadic Education Delivery within Education Sector Plans in Kenya'. In: *MOEK/UNICEF, Forum on Flexible Education. Reaching Nomadic Populations*, Garissa, Kenya, 20-23 June 2006. Summary Report, Kenya Ministry of Education, UNICEF, Commonwealth of Learning and Commonwealth Secretariat, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada.

Available from http://www.col.org/SiteCollectionDocuments/NomadicReport_A4_web.pdf [Accessed on 20 /01/ 2010].

Kakonge, E., Kireia, S., Gitachu, R. and Nyamu, F. (2001) *Girls' Education in Wajir and Mandera Districts - Kenya*. Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) Kenya chapter. Available from www.fawe.org [Accessed on 20/05/08].

Kenneth K. (2007) Balancing Basic and Post Basic Education in Kenya: National versus International policy agendas. *International Journal of Education Development*, 27(4): 358-370.

Kenya Food Security Steering Group (KFSSG) (11th - 15th Feb.2008) *Wajir District, short rains assessment report*. Available www.google.com [Accessed on 28/03/09].

Krätli, S. and Dyer, C. (2009) *Mobile Pastoralists and Education: Strategic Options. Education for nomads working paper 1*. International Institute for Environment and Development. Available from www.iied.org [Accessed on 28/01/2010].

Krätli S. (2001) *Education Provision to Nomadic Pastoralists*; A literature review under taken under World Bank contract 7528355. Available from www.google scholar.com [Accesses on 12/07/2008]

Krätli, S. with Dyer, C. (2006) 'Education and Development for Nomads: the Issues and the Evidence'. In: Dyer C. (ed.) *The Education of Nomadic Peoples, Current Issues, future prospects*. New York and Oxford: Berghahn Books.

Maeda, M. (2009) Education and cultural hybridity: What cultural values should be imparted to students in Kenya? *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 39 (3): 335-340.

Manda, D., Mwabu, G., Kimenyi M. (2002) *Human Capital Externalities and Returns to Education in Kenya: Social Sector Division*; Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis (KIPPRA) Discussion Paper No. 13. Nairobi: KIPPRA

Markakis, J. (2004) *Pastoralism on the Margins; a report by Minority Rights Group*. UK: MRG.

Ministry of Education Science and Technology (2008) *Education Management Information Systems, Unit*. Nairobi: MOEST.

Ministry of Education Science and Technology (2005a) *Sessional Paper 1 of 2005 on Policy Framework for Education, Training and Research*. Nairobi: Government Printers.

Ministry of Education Science and Technology (2005b) *Kenya Education Sector Support Programme [KESSP] 2005-2010*. Nairobi: MOEST.

Ministry of Education Science and Technology. (2004) *Development of education in Kenya*.
<http://www.ibe.unesco.org/International/ICE47/English/Natreps/reports/Kenya.pdf>.
[Accessed on 15/11/2008].

Ministry of Education Science and Technology (2003) *Free Primary Education: Every Child in School*. Nairobi: MOEST.

Ministry of Education Science and Technology (2001) *Education for all (EFA) in Kenya, A National Handbook on EFA 2000 and Beyond*. Nairobi: MOEST.

Muhammad, N. (2006) 'From Kaduna to Garissa: 'A decade of experimentation with innovative interventions in the implementation of nomadic education in Nigeria.' In: *MOEK/UNICEF, Forum on Flexible Education. Reaching Nomadic Populations*, Garissa, Kenya, 20-23 June 2006. Summary Report, Kenya Ministry of Education, UNICEF, Commonwealth of Learning and Commonwealth Secretariat, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada. Available from
www.col.org/SiteCollectionDocuments/NomadicReport_A4web.pdf [Accessed on 20 /01 2010].

Mukudi, E. (2004) Education for all: a framework for addressing the persisting illusion for the Kenyan context. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 24: 231–240.

Mugwe, J.H. (2006) *Universalizing Basic Education in Kenya: The challenges of providing Gender equitable education to pastoralists of Northern Kenya*. Master Thesis, Institute of Social studies; The Hague: The Netherlands.

Nomadic Primary Health Care [NPHC]. (2003/2004) *Nomadic; Brief Report on Mobile Schools Project 2003/2004*. Wajir: NPHC

Nomadic Primary Health Care Programme (NPHC). (2000) *Mobile Schools Project Wajir district, Concept Paper*. Wajir: NPHC.

Njeru, E. and Orodho, J. (2003) *Education Financing in Kenya: The Secondary School Bursary Scheme*. Discussion Paper No. 035. Nairobi: Institute of Policy Analysis and Research (IPRA).

Olanyan, D.A. and Okemakinde, T. (2008) Human Capital Theory: implications for education development. *European Journal of Scientific Research*, 24 (2):157-162.

OWN & Associates: Centre for Research and Development (2004) *Monitoring of the Free Primary Education and establishing the unit cost of primary education in Kenya*. Nairobi: OWN & Associates

Oxfam, GB (2006) Delivering the Agenda, International Briefing Paper; addressing the chronic under development in Kenya's arid lands. Available from www.google.com [Accessed on 17/02/ 2009].

Oxfam, GB (2005) Beyond the mainstream, Education and gender equality series, programme insights. Oxfam. Available from www.google.com [Accessed on 12/02/2008].

Pennells, J and Ezeomah, C. (2000) 'Basic education for refugees and nomads'. In: Yates C. and Bradley J. (eds), *Basic education at a distance, world review of distance education and open learning volume 2*. London and New York: The commonwealth of learning

Punch, K. (2006) *Introduction to social research, quantitative and qualitative approaches* 2nd edition. London: SAGE Publications.

Republic of Kenya (30/04/2008) *The Development and State of Art of Adult Learning and Education (ALE)*, National Report of Kenya. Nairobi: MOEST.

Republic of Kenya (2007) *Millennium Development Goals: Status report, Kenya 2007*. Nairobi: Ministry of Planning and National Development.

Republic of Kenya (2004) *The Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation Paper 2003-2007 (ERSWP)*. Nairobi: Ministry of Planning and National Development.

Republic of Kenya (2003) *Education III Project – strengthening and expanding access to appropriate secondary education and skills acquisition appraisal report*. Nairobi: Ministry of Education Science and Technology.

Republic of Kenya (2002) *National Development Plan 2002-2008*. Nairobi: Government Printers.

Republic of Kenya (2001) *The Children's Act Cap 498 of the Kenya laws*. Nairobi: Government Printers.

Republic of Kenya (1964) *Report of the Kenya Education Commission, Parts I and II*. Nairobi: Government Printers.

Robson, C. (2002) *Real world Research: A Resource for Social Scientists and Practitioner-Researchers* 2nd ed. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.

Sasaoka, Y. and Nishimurra, M. (2009). Does universal primary education weaken decentralisation? Participation and accountability frameworks in East Africa. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 99999:1 (iFirst Article) 1-17.

Sifuna, D. (2007) Challenges of Increasing Access and Improving Quality: An Analysis of Universal Primary Education interventions in Kenya and Tanzania since the 1970s. *International Review of Education*, 53: 687-699.

Sifuna, D. (2005) Increasing access and participation of pastoralist's communities in primary education in Kenya. *International Review of Education*, 51 (5/6): 499-516.

Sifuna, D. (1991) Research in educational inequality issues and policy trends in Kenya. *Prospects XXI* (2): 281-286.

Society for International Development [SID]. (2004) *Pulling Apart; Facts and figures on Inequality in Kenya*. Nairobi: SID.

Souza, A. (2006) 'Forum on Flexible Education: Reaching Nomadic Populations in Africa background Paper.' In: *MOEK/UNICEF, Forum on Flexible Education. Reaching Nomadic Populations*, Garissa, Kenya, 20-23 June 2006. Summary Report, Kenya Ministry of Education, UNICEF, Commonwealth of Learning and Commonwealth Secretariat, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada,

Available from http://www.col.org/SiteCollectionDocuments/NomadicReport_A4_web.pdf

[Accesses on 25/02/2010]

Tahir, G. (2006) 'Keynote addresses, setting the Stage: Nomadic Life and the Implication for Education Provision.' In: *MOEK/UNICEF, Forum on Flexible Education. Reaching Nomadic Populations*, Garissa, Kenya, 20-23 June 2006. Summary Report, Kenya Ministry of Education, UNICEF, Commonwealth of Learning and Commonwealth Secretariat, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada.

Available from http://www.col.org/SiteCollectionDocuments/NomadicReport_A4_web.pdf
[Accesses on 25/02/2010]

Tomasevski, K. (2004) *Manual on Rights-based Education: Global human rights made simple*. UNESCO: Bangkok

UNESCO (2009) *EFA Global Moitoring Report*. Available from <http://www.unesco.org>
[Accessed on 24/09/2009].

UNESCO (2008) *EFA Global Monitoring Report*. Available from <http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev>. Php-URL [Accessed on 7/09/08].

UNESCO (2007) *A Human Rights-Based Approach to Education For All, a framework for the realization of children's right to education and rights within education*. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO (2000) *Education for all: Meeting our collective commitments, The Dakar Framework for Action*. Paris: UNESCO.

Wainaina, G. (2005) An Inequality perspective of education structure and performance in Kenya. Available from www.google.com [Accessed on 06/12/2008].

Yates, C. and Tilson T. (2000) 'Basic education at a distance, an introduction.' In: Yates C. and Bradley J. (Eds), *Basic education at a distance, World review of distance education and open learning: Volume 2*. London and New York: Routledge falmer.

Appendix – Instruments used in the research

Semi-structured interview

Questionnaire

Focus group discussion

SEMI- STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR NOMADIC PARENTS

The following is an outline of possible questions to be used with nomadic parents. It is assumed that the parents will be available for the individual interviews, however, should the situation not allow interviewing the parents, and the same schedule shall be used as assisted completion questionnaire. The parents will be informed of the need for the interview and the confidentiality of their information. Their permission will be sought to record the proceedings of interview.

Background information

A. No. of family members

Males..... Females.....

B. No. of children in the family

Males..... Females.....

C. No. Of children in the formal schools? Males..... Female.....

No. Of children in the Islamic schools? Males.....Females.....

Why are some /none of your children not in school/are in school?

D. What is the distance of the nearest school from your home?

Why are you far from the permanent settlements?

E. The number of herds kept by you.

Cows Goats /sheep..... Camels Donkeys

F. What was the largest number of your animals cleared by the last drought?

Cows.....Goats/Sheep.....Camels..... Donkeys

How many of your animals did you sell in the last one year?

Cows Goats/sheep.....camelsDonkeys

How much money did they fetch.....

Out of this amount how much did you spend on education related expenses including family bill expenses, boarding fees, transport etc.....

Policies and Perception to education

G. Ask the parent whether h/she is aware of the following policies of education

- Free primary education
- Boarding schools
- school feeding programs and
- Bursaries for secondary students?

If yes, how is it helpful to you?

[If No, suggest ways of improving education access for nomadic children] or ways of making the above programmes more effective]

H. 'How do you see education?

If it is good then how?

If it is not good, how do you think should the life of the nomads [like you] be improved?

Others say ...through education people become healthier, get better incomes and manage their affairs well? How do you respond to these claims?

Challenges faced in accessing education

- I. What are the issues that stop nomads from sending their children to school?

[Others say early marriage, child labour are some key issues that keep your children away from school, what do you think?]

How do you think should the issues above be overcome [if there is any]?

- J. Ask them to *suggest other ways* their children can learn basic numeracy and language.

What should you do as a parent to change the situation for your children in terms of education?

- K. What do you think the government should do so that you and your children access Education?

- L. Anything you wish to add to the discussion we have had today?

Thank you for your cooperation

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR NOMADIC STUDENTS

The following questionnaire is meant to study and find out the challenges that are seen to be contributing to the low participation in education by nomads and their children. It is hoped that as you fill in the questionnaire you will sincerely give the exact picture of the situation.

Please do not write your name anywhere on the questionnaire. Please note that the content and information will be confidential so don't hesitate to give any information related to our topic; regarding the challenges, personal experiences and your views on educating nomads.

1. Who encouraged you to come to school? Put a tick in the appropriate space

- a. Parents [.....]
- b. Brothers/Sisters [.....]
- c. Uncles /Aunts [.....]
- d. Area chief [.....]
- e. Others [.....]

Please explain if you chose others

2. What do you think encouraged your parents to bring you to school? Put a tick in the appropriate space

- a. Availability of boarding school [.....]
- b. The drought cleared our animals [.....]
- c. Construction of school near your home [.....]
- d. Provision of free education by government [.....]
- e. Others [.....]

Please explain if you choice others.....

3. As a student from nomadic background, what challenges do you face in pursuing your education?

4. How did you overcome some of the challenges mentioned above?

5. Do you know of any nomadic children who do not go to school? Yes..... No.....

Why are they not in schools? **Please write all the reasons**

6. How can our nomadic children who are currently not in schools be educated?

7. What is your level of study (class)?

Secondary	Primary	Others
Form.....	Class.....	

8. Please fill in the following table about your household members

	No. of household members	How many read & write	No. in primary schools	No. in secondary schools	No. in Islamic schools
Males					
Females					

9. Which of the following statements **best explains** where you spend your school holidays /vacations? Please tick the appropriate space

a. Most of the time at the permanent village [.....]

b. Most of time with mobile nomadic family [.....]

c. About equal times in both the above places [.....]

d. Somewhere Else [.....]

If you answered **somewhere else** in the above please explain

10. What do you do during your school holidays /vacation? Put a tick in the one that best explains your situation

Activity	How often			
	Everyday	Several in a week	Once a week	Never
1.Looking after animals				
2. Fetching Water/firewood				
3. Looking after the babies/cooking food				
4.Revising my school work				
5.Others				

If you answered **5 in the above box** Please explain.....

11. How long do you take to travel from your nomadic home to school

Days.....or hours.....or.....km/miles

12. Where did you stay during your primary schooling? **Put a tick in the appropriate space**

- a. Mostly in a boarding school [.....]
- b. Mostly with relatives [.....]
- c. Mostly with my family [.....]
- d. About equal times in all the above [.....]
- e. Somewhere else [.....]

If you answered **somewhere else** please explain.....

13. Imagine you were the Minister for education, what are **some changes** that you will put in place to bring more nomadic children to schools

14. Please write in the space below any other comment on issues of nomadic education.

Thank you for completing this questionnaire
University of Birmingham, UK.

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION SCHEDULE FOR EDUCATION OFFICIALS, HEAD TEACHERS AND TEACHERS.

Introduction

Thank you all for coming to participate in this focus group discussion.

My names are **Abdi Ibrahim Abdi**, currently undertaking research at the University of Birmingham, UK. I am carrying out a research on the challenges faced by nomads in our district in accessing education and find out how best our people can make use of available opportunities and where possible help the government in changing its perception and ways of education provision to nomads.

I wish to benefit from your experiences as you are important pillars of the society and in the government. I hope to share the research results with you by placing a copy of it in either the district library / District education office sometimes at the end of this year.

We will go into smaller groups of four to five members each and discuss the questions and issues that I will give to your group. The small groups will report back to the whole group, however before we start please ask for clarifications where you are not sure.

All our discussion will be written down so please ensure everything said and agreed upon by your groups is captured very well. At the end you will have individual chances to write anything you feel should be part of our discussions and was not discussed.

A. situation for education for nomads in our district

- Ask the participants to describe the current situation of education for nomadic children in our district in terms of access, enrolment and participation, dropout rates etc

B. Challenges in accessing education

- What challenges do nomadic students/children face in accessing primary school education and early childhood education?
- What challenges do the implementers head teachers, Education officials, School Management Committees ,Board Of Governors and teachers face in educating nomads
- What challenges do nomadic parents face in accessing education
- What challenges do the nomadic students already in schools face

C. Perceptions

- How do you see nomads in relation to their way of life?
- How do you think is their perception to education?
- What do you think should they change in this way for life?
- What do you think should be done in the implementation of education to attract more nomads?

D. Education policies

- Are there policies at national level meant to include pastoralists in education
- How have these been practically implemented by us at the district level
- Which of these policies have proved to be hard to implement and why

- Are there policies at district and school levels to improve access for nomadic children. E.g. flexible time tabling
- What policy changes do we need in order to accommodate the nomadic way of living in our education system in Kenya?
- Any successful policy (ies) targeting nomads

E. Way forward

- What roles can the participants play in improving access to quality education for nomadic children in Wajir?
- Apart from the existing modes of delivery, suggest other ways of educating nomads and their children.

Thank you all for your participation

University of Birmingham, UK